THE Phi Delta Kappan

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ROLFE LANIER HUNT, *Editor-in-Chief*

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HORSE SENSE

By ELBERT HUBBARD

If you work for a man, in heaven's name, work for him. If he pays wages that supply your bread and butter, work for him, speak well of him, think well of him, stand by him, and stand by the institution he represents. I think if I worked for a man I would work for him. I would not work for him a part of his time, but all of his time. I would give an undivided service or none. If put to a pinch, an ounce of loyalty is worth a pound of cleverness. If you must vilify, condemn, and eternally disparage, why, resign your position, and when you are outside, damn to your heart's content. But, I pray you, so long as you are a part of the institution, do not condemn it. Not that it will injure the institution—not that—but when you disparage the concern of which you are a part, you disparage yourself.

PHI DELTA KAPPA

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Editorial Comment

Prince of Peace

It is the birthday of the Prince of Peace that we celebrate at Christmas. They who would follow a prince of peace must surely follow the paths of peace. Those who would have peace must first have justice and good will, for these are conditions of peace. A rule of law must obtain between nations before there is hope of permanent peace. To me, that means a world government.

Blueprints for a world government have many times been made by dictators. All you have to do then, if you are a dictator, is to enforce your will on the rest of the world. Things come differently in a democracy. In a democracy, the plans for the world government should grow out of the thinking of the people. It augurs well, then, when we see a world constitution made by people who appointed themselves to the job.

The Committee to Frame a World Constitution was organized in 1945, under University of Chicago auspices. It established the magazine, *Common Cause,* to serve as the report of its deliberations in an effort to frame a world constitution. A "Preliminary Draft of a World Constitution" was published in *Common Cause* in March, 1948. With some supporting papers, it has just been printed as a book by the University of Chicago Press.

The ideas of the world constitution may well be explored in our social study classes. We know of some classes which form themselves as constitutional conventions for a world constitution, for example. We think this draft of a world constitution will be of service in such groups. Out of such thinking may grow the popular will which will cause our government to act as the servant of the people in making a "more perfect union" in the United Nations. Just as we learned under the Articles of Confederation the lessons which led us to the more perfect union in the United States through the Constitution, we are having experiences now which are preparing us for that stronger union which may bring a rule of order rather than the present anarchy among the so-called "sovereign" nations.

Blessed are the peacemakers. Every teacher may share in the happiness of the peacemaker.

Foreign Students

If you read Karsten Heli's story of his eleven weeks in the U. S. A. as a guest of Phi Delta Kappa District VI, you will read with the more interest the two reports on pages 152 and 153, concerning the manner in which arrangements are made to handle exchange scholarships.

Phi Delta Kappa is a strategic group in exchange of students. Students of education, we are in exceptional position in giving the foreign student the entree into schools of all sorts, where he can see in action the American dream of giving equal opportunity to every child.

Sigma chapter at Ohio State University is doing an interesting work in enlisting the interest of foreign students on the campus in the American public school system. They are usually specializing in some technical courses, such as chemistry or engineering—the education department as we know it is unknown in nearly all universities abroad. They welcome the chance to know America better. They appreciate especially the invitation into American home life, which can be made part of the invitation to visit community schools. The fellowship of Phi Delta Kappa can greatly enrich their stay in the United States.

Phi Delta Kappans usually have the know-how to be able to swing scholarships from the university, to book lecture opportunities, to schedule discussion periods, include the visitor in the itinerary of the school officer who must travel anyhow.

And no person who lifts his hand to help the foreign student fails to be himself lifted. The chance to see ourselves through the eyes of our visitors is one greatly to be coveted.

Voluntary Agencies

One dilemma which faces UNESCO is the fact that in the United States, the cultural program is not a government program. According to our pattern, the cultural program is the function of unofficial, voluntary agencies. Unesco, a government organization of official status, finds it hard to rec-

oncile this policy with the prevailing pattern of other countries of its membership. In those countries, there are no such voluntary agencies. Governments quite frankly are interested in propagandizing their way of life.

Other United Nations' agencies work through government channels. Thus the World Health Organization operates entirely through official channels. By contrast, Unesco in its cultural aspects, attempts to work through the voluntary agencies in the United States. Unesco tries to locate and define needs. Unesco tries to stimulate efforts to meet these needs. But the variety of cultural pattern tends to weaken an execution of plans.

Unesco's highest priority is given to relief of cultural needs, for example. Unesco representatives have succeeded in compiling a "Book of Needs," and anybody who wants to can pick from this book of needs to serve the country or the field of that special interest. School people would like to help high schools, let us say in the Philippine Islands. Unesco has a list of needs of high schools in the Philippine Islands. But how can you, in a local high school, find the name of the high school which you will help in the Philippine Islands?

Again, supposing you are willing to buy a microscope to send to a high school in the Philippine Islands. You have to buy at retail prices. You have to plan for packing and shipment, using shipping facilities not very familiar to you. In many countries there are customs regulations to be met, possibly tariff walls. You are overwhelmed by the complexity of these problems.

Somewhere on the national scale is needed the agency which can contract for many microscopes, at wholesale rates, arrange for the packing and shipping in bulk. This agency would have the experience with international transport, with regulations governing international trade. Unesco on its limited budget cannot be this operating body. In the American pattern, voluntary agencies must meet such needs.

Those needs are particularly acute in personnel. Competent personnel makes production possible. Production waits upon trained people.

We find it hard to realize in the occupied countries that trained people with initiative were deliberately exterminated. They did not fit into "the new order." For example, it is reported that in Ethiopia before the war, some 235 persons spoke English. After the war, only about two dozen were left. To be able to speak English was to be suspect. The Nazis soon learned that people who had been outside Germany were likely to have ideas; that was enough to be condemned.

Immediate food relief needs have been met in some areas. A strategic place for you to make your contribution is now in the matter of training personnel. What can you do to enlist support for a foreign scholar in the United States, in your own community?

Teacher Has a Vested Interest

The teacher has a vested interest in his job. That vested interest has been recognized by the courts of the land. The vested interest of the teacher in his job, for example, was one of the reasons the U. S. Supreme Court ruled a teacher of German had a right to continue teaching German during the period of hysteria during World War I.

The vested interest of the teacher in his job should be recognized in the plans now being made for school district reorganization. We quite agree in the necessity for, and the desirability of, the consolidation of school districts. We see the advantages of a large administrative unit. The teacher now teaching in a one-room rural school is entitled to consideration, however, as plans are being made for the new large unit. Somewhere early in the discussion, some guarantee should be given to that teacher that progress in district reorganization will not rob him or her of a job as a teacher.

Teachers are human beings as well as teachers. It is hard for any teacher to consider in pure reason the thing that threatens his living. The teacher in the small school district should be given the opportunity of considering fairly every proposal for consolidation by being sure that he will retain status in the revised district. Time should be given the teacher in service to meet any qualifications which may be required of teachers certified for the new school. The many plans now being made for the reorganization of school district give a reason for this emphasis on the vested interest of a teacher in his job. Just as workers in other fields are now being given some guarantees against being thrown out of jobs by technological improvements, so it should be in teaching. We have now had enough experience with such matters that our plans should take this experience into account.

Mistletoe Meanings

By ADRIA LOCKE LANGLEY*

ON V-J night I heard about mistletoe, peace and war, from an old, old sailor. He was a naturalized American, born in Sweden. "Old Swede" they called him.

The night was warm, but he sat huddled in an old wooden rocker, his pea jacket about his shoulders, drinking brandy. The old man listened to the street noises and drank. After a bit his eyes grew misty and he shuddered.

"In a little while," he said sadly, "ve all be kissing under mistletoe un' saying, 'Peace on eart' —goot vill to man.' " He rocked back and forth for a little time, then with sudden fierce energy threw his arm high and brought his old fist down on his chair arm with a mighty whack.

"Ha!" he exploded. "Mistletoe—iss like peace un' iss like var!"

He shook his head and demanded, "How come, young writing voman, I don't figger dot out before now? How come I don't see before now dot all t'ree is vhat fancy chemist vorkers call by-products? Huh?"

"By-products, sir?" I questioned.

"Ya. Mistletoe grows on big tree. Ve use here in America for kissing. How come ve use for kissing? You know, young writing voman?"

"Well," I said, "I suppose it could be traced way back to mythology. The Druids always cut mistletoe from the sacred oaks with a golden blade and gave little sprigs of it to people for charms, and middle European nations revered the mistletoe as a symbol to be used in connection with worship and ceremonies. And then, there's the story of Balder—but that doesn't fit in."

"So? So?" He shook a finger at me. "It don't fit in? Ha! Iss of Balder I am t'inking tonight."

He looked at me rather admiringly.

"You may be first person I ever meet vhat knows about Balder—"he shook his head "—but maybe not. Never haf I asked. Ain't t'ought of Balder myself for maybe 80 years. Tell me the story of Balder. I bet you don't know it."

I was afraid he might drift off in a doze if I did the talking, so I pleaded, "Oh, have a heart. Let me hear a Norseman tell it."

He patted my hand.

"Balder vas son of Frigga. You know who vas Frigga?" he asked, testing me out.

"Frigga," I replied feeling like a little girl in school, "was the spirit of life—not to be confused with Freyja. Freyja was the goddess of young love, but Frigga more nearly represented mother love."

"Iss good," he approved. "So Frigga, like all mothers, she vants to keep her son alive always. But Frigga iss also a goddess, so iss some hope for her son, she t'inks. So Frigga goes all over whole world, un' every single t'ing she blesses un' gets promise it vill not hurt her son. But only von t'ing she misses. She stand before the great oak and the oak, it says, no, it vill not harm her son, Balder.

"But Frigga does not see the little bush vhat grow out of the great oak and so the mistletoe, it iss not blessed un' makes no promise. Now, Loki, who iss like devil, has turned hisself into old voman who follows Frigga.

"Now, Loki gets all gods and goddesses to play fine game. They hurls t'ings at Balder, but Balder stands un' iss not hurt. Frigga iss most happy. But Loki makes a little dart of mistletoe and puts it in hand of a blind boy and tells him how to throw and there—dot fine boy, Balder, lays dead."

The old man rocked back and forth. Tears rimmed his eyes and he wiped them roughly on the sleeve of his pea jacket.

"Iss nice ve make of mistletoe a kissing bush. Iss yust so much reason to make of it a killing bush." He nodded toward the window. "Ya, tonight I t'ink how mistletoe grows out of bigger tree. Iss so little a t'ing. Iss like peace, iss like war. All over the vorld I haf sailed—yust a seaman on freighters. All over the vorld men seem so much like von another."

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* From the "Meaning of Mistletoe Confuses 'Old Swede,' " in the Chicago Daily News, copyright owners, by whose courtesy it is here reproduced.

He drank the last from his glass and sighed. "Ya, tonight I t'ink how peace—how var—must yust grow out of bigger t'ings; must yust be von little t'ing we forget to bless; how peace un' var are maybe come from dot same von little t'ing."

He sighed. "Iss dot little t'ing good vill to man? Soon I sail the big sea—ya, the big sea—un' only tonight do I t'ink on dis question."

He leaned forward and looked at me searchingly, hopefully. "Iss it dot ve haf good vill for Vhite un' not for Black, or for Black un' not for Brown, or for Brown un' not for Yellow? Tell me," he pleaded, "if ve know, couldn't ve turn it to kissing instead of to killing? Huh? Tell me, vhat iss dot little t'ing ve forget to bless? Vhat iss it? Do you know, writing voman? Do you know?"

He wiped his eyes, and we sat together thinking of all the young men, who, like Balder, lay dead.

Oh, what is that little thing which we've forgotten to bless? Do you know? Do you know?

War and Education

In *Education and World Tragedy,* Howard Mumford Jones points out:

"Since 1896 the earth has scarcely known a year without warfare. . . . During the first thirty years of the present century, according to Quincy Wright's authoritative study of war, European powers alone fought seventy-four wars, which lasted a total of 297 years . . . one has to go back to the twelfth century to find a comparable record." (p. 3.)

"Out of every thousand Europeans alive in the twelfth century it is thought that two died as battle casualties; in the first twenty-five years of the twentieth century, 54 out of every thousand so died, an increase of 1,700 per cent." (p. 7)

"In the first three decades of the present century we have therefore killed 33 1/3 per cent more human beings than were killed in the previous 800 years. But these figures do not include the other five continents and they take us only to the rise of Hitler." (p. 7)

"Modern warfare is increasingly a function of education, and education is increasingly dominated by war." (p. 15)

"World War II, in sum . . . simply broadened and extended the relation between war and education worked out some thirty years ago . . . it surprised nobody to find the laboratories of great universities surrounded by armed guards and inaccessible even to officers of the institution which owned them." (p. 26)

"This nationalism, which has rallied religion, culture, technology, and science itself to its support, now includes education—it is a necessary part of something called self-defense." p. 30)

—From a review of the book in *The Clearing House,* February, 1948, page 372, by Kimball Wiles and Earl R. Gabler.

National Science Foundation

Legislation to establish the Foundation, in a form reasonably acceptable to research workers in the social fields, was passed in the Senate last spring, but the House, after committee hearings, took no action. The bill therefore died for the third time.

It is thought that a number of the difficulties which this bill has encountered in the past two years have grown out of political differences between the legislative and executive branches of the government. Now that the November election has provided a congressional majority and a president from the same political party there are strong grounds for hope that NSF legislation can be passed. There is assurance that its friends will introduce new bills when the eighty-first Congress meets.

The Inter-Society Committee for a National Science Foundation represents the scientists of all fields in urging and watching over this legislation. This Committee was set up by the American Association for the Advancement of Science, in which education has representation through Section Q. (Phi Delta Kappa is an associated society.) Phi Delta Kappa has had delegates at both meetings which the Inter-Society Committee has held.

Dr. Edmund E. Day, President of Cornell University, is Chairman of the Committee, and Dael Wolfle, of the American Psychological Association, is its Secretary. Two reports of the work of this Committee have been published by Wolfle in the magazine *Science* for December 5, 1947, and for March 5, 1948.

DOUGLAS E. SCATES
CARTER V. GOOD
Co-Chairmen, Phi Delta Kappa National Commisson on Research.

Effects of Staff Shortage

By STANTON F. LEGGETT and WILLIAM S. VINCENT

THE American People will have better public elementary schools when they provide more teachers. Over-crowding of the classrooms cramps the best teacher, and swamps the poor teacher. The demeritable inadequacy of staff severely limits what is done in the public elementary schools, especially in educational planning, individual attention, the variety of experiences made available to pupils, and provisions for help.

New York City provides 37 teachers per 1000 weighted elementary pupils in 1945-46 as compared with 45 teachers per 1000 weighted elementary pupils in 15 communities of comparable wealth. Albany staffs at the rate of 50 teachers to 1000 weighted elementary pupils. Buffalo provides 43; Rochester 48; Syracuse 45; Utica 43. If New York City were to equal the rate at which Albany staffs its schools, over 10,000 teachers would be required as an addition to the New York City staff. In like manner, New York City would need to add to its health services 125 additional dental hygienists, 200 additional nurses, and 228 additional doctors, to provide a staff comparable to that of the other communities.

With practices in the classrooms of these different areas are compared, definite differences are found. What are some of the differences? These differences may be found directly attributable, at least in part, to the relative adequacy of staff.

Educational Planning

Teachers of comparable subject and grade level would have the time and energy to meet frequently during the year to dovetail their programs, to organize a set of experiences covering several years of a pupil's life which would eliminate useless repetition but which would incorporate the major things which youngsters ought to be taught. For instance, history, geography, economics, sociology and related subjects would not be presented piecemeal and abstracted from their real-life settings, but would be tied together into a social studies program touching upon the major problems and issues of the day. This kind of an approach to history, geography and related areas of knowledge, makes facts that are learned useful to pupils and teaches them how to approach the solution of social problems in adult life. As it stands now, with present pupil load and teaching what it is, there is just not the necessary time and energy for the thought and the conferences necessary to bring this about on a large scale.

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The course of study materials so prepared for different grade levels, for different groups, and for different individuals within the same group or grade level would necessarily be highly varied. For the approach to these problems, to be sound, must vary with the ability, special talents, and background of individual pupils. This takes time; it takes staff. It takes also the services of outside experts on instructional problems, budgetary provision for which is severely limited so far as the staffs of individual schools are concerned.

Too much of the time with large classes and heavy teaching loads is spent by the teacher in talking to and questioning pupils. The class meeting period all too often becomes solely a *recitation* period. It is not that the teachers do not know that the best educational know-how has long ago outmoded *recitation* as a primary teaching method. Better practice uses class meeting time for laying plans, for individual study and research, and individual conference. But this kind of thing can hardly be done with classes of more than 20 or 30 (25 as a maximum). Because the effectiveness of learn-

* This article is adapted from a section in "The Need for Tax Leeway for the School Systems of Large Cities," staff study No. 6 of the Fiscal Policy for Public Education in New York State, under the auspices of the New York State Educational Conference Board and Public Education Association of New York City, Paul R. Mort, Director, available from the New York State Teachers Association, Albany, New York.

ing can be measured by the study habits of pupils, the amount of homework assigned is greatly reduced, and most study work is completed at school under the supervision of the teacher. Large home work assignments, unwatched and unguided, may be found as a favored device among teachers burdened with large classes.

Individual Attention

Opportunities for individual attention are greatly improved when the staff is numerically adequate—this means teaching staff and helping staff. A trained librarian can help pupils learn to use the library—a skill very necessary to future scholastic success. Development of skills like reading can be continually appraised on an individual basis. Part of a sound appraisal program involves the taking of daily observations by the teacher: notations on mental growth, attitudes, actions, special interests, jobs done well, home difficulties, adjustment and social problems, all filed properly in a cumulative folder. Along with these go samples of children's writing, drawing, and other work done. In the light of such records a suitable program of course work and other experiences can be laid out intelligently for each youngster. This cannot be done adequately by a teacher for too large a group of children; it cannot be done best without clerical assistance.

A much larger number of psychologists, psychiatrists, and guidance specialists would be available to assist the teacher with youngsters who need expert help. And the findings of such specialists would be more adequately implemented.

Variety of Experiences

One of the major purposes of school is to furnish a wide variety of experiences which will develop the competence of individuals and which will improve us as a people. For there are thousands of things which people must know how to do well in our society. Competence in these thousands of things cannot be assured unless pupils have many different kinds of experiences. Certainly the handful of conventional school subjects will not do the job. The conventional subjects must, of course, be taught. But when a teaching staff is overburdened there is not much else that can be done. Pupils need to see something of the industrial, business, and social life of the city in which they live—but see it under expert guidance so that they will also understand. This means such activities as trips, well planned and in considerable number, to industrial plants, social agencies, farms, stores, markets, and so on. In order that they may understand the basic nature of the institutions which are a part of our society, many of these must be reproduced in the school so that school pupils will learn how to use them. Such an institution as the school newspaper, patterned after the newspapers of the community, offer opportunities for children to appreciate the rights and the responsibilities of the term *Freedom of the press*. Pupils need a wide variety of social experiences such as, in some instances, are not provided in all homes. Especially in those homes whose parents are both employed, pupils needed to be guided into wholesome out-of-school pursuits. The sports program should include a variety of individual and group activities for every season of the year. To the lack of such provisions as these the incidence of juvenile delinquency has been shown to be definitely related. The mere problem of grouping pupils together in a classroom has far-reaching implications upon the type of experience which the group can have. When the sole criterion is to get as many pupils with as few teachers as possible in order to make the budget stretch, such other more valid criteria as social maturity, community of interest, and variety of background among pupils cannot be taken into account when grouping them into classrooms.

The evidence shows that the elementary schools of the city lag behind the comparable schools in the provision of a variety of experiences. Further analysis of the reason puts the finger primarily upon numerical inadequacy of staff in the city.

Health Provisions

As to health, the entire health program would be better coordinated with more adequate staffing. In addition, the various facets of the program which now reach only a few pupils would be made available to all: a comprehensive medical examination at least every other year, dental treatment for all children who need it, a trained full-time physical education teacher in each elementary school, a full-time nurse in each elementary school with public health training.

Ethics for Science and Education

By ANDREW C. IVY

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IT IS NO longer possible to adhere to the view that the scientist should carry on in his laboratory, divorced from political or social philosophy. On the contrary, there can be no successful political or social policy for our times unless it is predicated on an understanding of the scientific method and unless it takes account all the potentialities of scientific endeavour. In recognition of these principles, scientists are now manifesting an awareness of their moral responsibilities for the technological application of their discoveries.

Science cannot and should not be held politically or legally responsible for the way in which its discoveries are applied. The imposition of such responsibility would deprive the scientist of freedom of thought and of discovery, and it would restrict the scope of scientific inquiry.

On the other hand, it is the duty of science to assume a moral obligation in seeing that its efforts are applied for the enrichment rather than for the detriment of humanity. Otherwise the goal of science is limited to discovery, and science has no voice in protecting its own future. More important, the failure to assume such obligation would impute to science an unbecoming cynicism regarding its relation to humanity and the value and dignity of its calling. This would be inconsistent with the letter and spirit of Francis Bacon's declaration, which states:

> The true and lawful goal of the sciences is none other than this: that human life be endowed with new discoveries and powers. . .

In this pronouncement, made hundred of years ago, the aim of the scientist is clearly conceived as extending beyond "discovery for its own sake"; it plainly requires of the scientist a concern that his "new discoveries and power" be an endowment to human life. I repeat, and the trend of world events indicates, that it is suicidal for science to relinquish to other agencies the sole responsibility for the technological application of scientific discoveries. Science has a clear moral obligation, and it is in the recognition of this obligation that science can, in my opinion, set itself a worthy goal.

The goal which I envision for science finds its precedent in the spirit of medicine. This spirit originated with the earliest naturalist, who progressed from the study of the individual to the investigation of the universe; then comprehending the universe as a unit, he returned to the study of the individual. This trend of thought was crystallized by Hippocrates, the great physician of the Golden Age of Greece, into the philosophy which has ever since remained the guiding spirit of medicine.

THE HIPPOCRATIC OATH

Hippocrates brought to medicine a scientific philosophy when he taught that disease was due to material causes rather than to the wrath of gods and witches. He provided a technical philosophy by introducing methods of diagnosis and treatment and by emphasizing the importance of art and skill. He also provided medicine with a moral and ethical philosophy, embodied in the immortal Oath of Hippocrates. This oath commands reverence and respect for the individual; it enjoins the manifestation of a high moral character by physicians toward all people regardless of their social or economic status. It teaches that the welfare of the individual is the prime moral interest of the physician and the main object of the profession is to serve humanity by maintaining health and postponing death.

It is because of this great ethical concept that medicine and its allied professions are held in high regard by people throughout the world. And it is only when medicine departs from this ideal, as it did in the totalitarian countries of Europe, that it loses its dignity and betrays its trust.

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* From an address to the Department of Higher Education of the National Education Association, Cleveland, Ohio, July 5, 1948.

Like medicine, science and scientists have the advantage provided by the universal respect for and the acceptance of the methods and results of science, Men everywhere soon come to agreement on scientific facts and methods regardless of race, religion, and politics. But science without an ethical goal will be subject to the same fate as befell medicine under fascism, where medicine had no goal.

The spirit of medicine—its preoccupation with the well-being of the individual everywhere, its respect for the dignity of human life, its readiness at all times to devote itself to the needs of the sick and injured, whether friend or foe—this is the most universal unifying principle on the face of the earth. Can this spirit be marshalled by science to assure world progress? Unless it can, the material and technological progress the world has made through science will come to naught.

We Can Have Peace

If we continue as in the past, we face the inevitability of war, whether it be of the nature of a preventive war or the natural and historical result of an armed peace in the two-bloc world. If we proceed on the basis of the universal spirit of medicine and the Golden Rule, we face the possibility of peace without appeasement.

Educators and scientists throughout the world have a great responsibility and strategic position in the tragic situation which confronts mankind. It is through the material success of science on the one hand and the deficiencies of secular and religious education on the other that civilization is threatened today. It must be through the activities of educators and scientists that the menace is removed.

For a Code of Ethics

I therefore urge the scientists and educators of the world to formulate and promulgate a code of ethical principles, setting forth the ideals of science and education, which should express a concern for the preservation and enrichment of human life and should emphasize that the fruits of science ought not to be monopolized for the use of any racial, religious, or political group. It should state further that it is contrary to the moral and ethical spirit of science for any scientist to apply or to aid in the application of scientific discoveries for any purpose other than that which will advance the well-being and dignity of the individual everywhere.

Let a study of the ethical precepts of science and education be a part of the school curriculum, and let a declaration of adherence to these precepts be required as part of the qualifications of every scientist and educator.

It is my earnest conviction that such a declaration of principles would mark the beginning for humanity of a release from fear and of a hope for peace and for the enrichment of life.

Change the Goal?

A few days ago I attended an education-industry conference. It was a meeting in which men from industry and education discussed the problems facing the schools with particular emphasis upon what industry expects of the public schools today. I attended a similar conference back in 1940. This was at the beginning of the war production period. At that time the men from industry were saying: "Give us men who can work with their hands, men who have had some basic training in the use of tools, men who have had some shop experience if only an elementary course in high school." At this later meeting, however, the emphasis was entirely different. The men from industry were saying: "Give us men who believe in private enterprise, men who have respect for property—both public and private, men who are willing to give an honest day's effort for the high wages they demand, men who really believe down in their hearts in the democratic way of life, men who are willing to assume personal responsibility for their own actions and who will not try to sabotage industry at the request of some labor leader whose sincerity of purpose may well be questioned." The request of industrial leaders has changed from a demand for skills to a demand for attitudes.

A few weeks ago Dr. Charles Marian spoke at a meeting held at the University of Chicago to name the education buildings for Dr. Charles H. Judd. At that meeting Dr. Marian stated: "The world cannot survive another world war, for another world war would destroy one-third of the population and would maim another one-third."

What does this mean to us who have responsibility for directing the education of the youth of this country today? To me it means that we are facing a complete revision of our teaching goals.

—S. B. Sullivan, *in the Alumni Quarterly of Illinois State Normal University, August, 1948, page 2.*

Education at the Grass Roots!

Professor of the Jack Pine

By B. H. CARLETON

PROFESSOR EARNEST HEAD strode out into the bare sand yard of his "Head's Academy." He was grinning broadly, and called to a knot of pickanninnies from his first grade. Seven or eight of them tumbled toward him, finally drew up at his feet, to look straight up to the fine head perched nearly six feet above the ground. Professor Head's lank frame was alleviated considerably by the flowing cape he always wore while on duty.

"It's time for singing," he told the laughing babies, and they all flowed back across the swept yard into the "auditorium" of the Rosenwald-built school. The auditorium was used also for the seventh and eighth grades; the desks in it were huge. The pickanninnies sat on the front row, in the seats without any desks in front of them. The room was filled with dusky pupils from all the grades, the walls lined with older people, many of them parents. The singing was already in progress, the songs going on and on, without cessation, as the group moved easily from one song into another, without leadership, but with some common understanding that quickly decided what was to be sung next. Some of the older people weaved back and forth in time to the spirituals, their eyes rolling contemplatively. An elderly minister punctuated the songs with occasional hallelujahs and varied arm waving gestures. Professor Head stood at the side, dignified and quiet. He seldom joined the others in actual songs.

I had come that afternoon to talk to the Professor about his hookworm report. He'd suggested that I listen to the singing for a while, then he'd give it to me. It was all ready, he said.

Five years before that we had first approached Head about hookworm control. "Oh," he said, "I'd be glad to do that, but we can't do it here."

But he did do it, not only for his children but for their parents and his entire countryside.

It isn't easy to explain why Head had demurred. It is almost impossible for us, as "damyankees" to understand why so many of our best intentions are so silly when seen from a Southern viewpoint. It isn't fair, perhaps, to report our own embarrassment while living in Georgia, as various "flying groups" from certain Northern colleges came through to "study."

"Show me the tobacco road country," one of my friends said, as I was driving him right through it. Apparently he was waiting for me to produce, forthwith, Dude and his famous pappy.

Professor Head knew very well that his children and their parents were just as proud as anyone else, that any suggestion of "do-goodism" would be repulsive. But Head knew something else, and that was that hookworm was in every one of his students and in most of their parents. And he knew what it was doing to them.

"I can't do much with them," he had said. "They've all got ground itch."

Five miles away, in a village near Savannah, we had found Lizzie. Lizzie was a colored nurse, well trained in Atlanta, on money supplied by one of her sons in Texas. That son, it developed, was a bell hop and made "right good money." More than that, he had sent some of it home regularly for ten years.

So we put it up to Lizzie. Would she help if we could get Head to let her? "Sho nuf," she said, first, and then, as she realized her colloquialism, changed it to, "I'd be right glad to do that."

There were conferences back and forth, and finally we had word that Head would let Lizzie try it on a few older students. The children didn't mind in the least, but on our first visit Head was anything but encouraged.

"Old Barlow came out yesterday and wanted to beat me up," Head told us. "Said I was inter-

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fering with the Lord's ways, and I had to talk right fast to keep him off me. He's stirring up trouble all right."

Old Barlow was a stout buck from the Savannah River swamps, lately turned tenant farmer for the Whitesons. He had brought with him seven or eight children of varied ages, and a hustling young wife. All the children called her "Lucy," but they were proud of her. It was known that Lucy could handle Old Barlow quite easily in any argument. We sent the nurse, Lizzie, to see Lucy.

Lucy had done a "lot of listening," Lizzie reported later. "Don't know what she thought, though," Lizzie ended her recital.

The next time we went down to see Head he was smiling. "Who do you think came in to ask for a treatment?" he asked, then without waiting for an answer went on, "Old Barlow himself. Said Lucy made him do it. I told him to come back the next day, then sent for Lizzie. We started treating him right then, before he changed his mind!"

The professor had won his battle, and it was only a matter of months until his school was free of the preventable disease. But he had other things on his mind.

"How can I teach these people," he would say. "I just have the children a few months, then their parents move on, and I get a new set."

Again the Rosenwald people provided that universal catalyst necessary to so many educational undertakings: money. They helped build a model industrial arts building, where the pupils could build things they had never had in their homes before. Because Head understood their needs, he had them building corn-stalk brooms, tables, chairs, model out-houses, even fish aquaria, and bunk beds. He began to turn out fair carpenters, even in the short time that most of his pupils could stay at his one school. He paid no attention to school semesters, but let the boys come in to work between crops, and during off seasons.

"Grades?" he would say, "What's that?" Professor Head knew very well what grades and formal classes were. He had them, too, as he had had for many, many decades. But his school was gradually forgetting the anachronisms of formal education, perhaps developing as modern an approach as could be found in the country any place.

"You should see my camera class now," he said one day. "First time I tried to take pictures of them half of them ran away. Thought maybe I was going to shoot them! Then when they got the idea of a picture, they wanted to see the finished picture right way—soon as I'd taken it."

That day he took us back into a corner of the industrial arts building. They had built a darkroom back there, and had been busy with their snapshots ever since. "Have to watch them pretty close, though," Head laughed. "They get some pretty damaging pictures sometimes."

Head took us back into his office, that day. Again he was troubled. "White folks say I'm stealing," he began. "They don't like us to have nice furniture and things. They say I'm using the Rosenwald money for myself. They say I didn't spend it all for the building. What can I do about that?"

"What about your books?" we asked him.

"I ain't kept many books, I guess. Been too busy. Got all my receipts, though."

We'd heard the charge before, heard it about every Negro school in the area. The story was always the same. "The principal is making out all right—he's feathering his nest."

We knew very well the Rosenwald money had not gone astray, but there was a small tuition charge, and a little public money. It would be quite easy to misappropriate some of that, with the sloppy books kept on it. It was pretty well known that Professor Head was in trouble, at least so far as rumor mongers could get him into trouble. In his case, that was quite a ways into trouble. He wasn't the only man who wanted to head that academy. We thought some of his competitors were really interested in some funds that were spent on the school.

Truth is a relative term at best, but the search for it seemed to be the only way to save Head this time.

"Can you prove what you did with all the money you handled?" we asked Head.

"I got all my receipts when I spent the money," he said.

"All of them?"

"Mister, I ain't no fool. For forty years I been head of this school. They accuse me of everything. I got the proof. What can I do with it?"

(Continued on Page 119)

Will the Golden Rule Work?

A Report of a Class Assignment in a Los Angeles High School

WILL THE Golden Rule work? When a ten-day experiment was carried on by students in a Senior Problems class in a Los Angeles high school, remarkable results were achieved. The students agreed to practice the Golden Rule in relation to the members of their families, without telling anyone. They were to keep a diary over that time and hand it to the teacher, together with their conclusions. Here are extracts from some of the conclusions:

"Though I did a little joking in my ten-day diary, I really think that I became a new person—a person who is more considerate and thoughtful of other people, even though they are your folks. But I shouldn't say "even though," because I think that they're the persons you should be the most considerate and kind to, as they're the closest to you."

"During these ten days I hve become closer to my parents than ever before. By meeting them halfway I am able to discuss my problems with them, whereas previously the discussions had been arguments."

"I really feel good about being helpful and kind to my family, and I'm sure from what I've done in the past ten days my family appreciate me more than ever before. I've also found that happiness can be yours, if you just go about it in the right way."

"The way my family noticed things was incredible. The first two days my mother thought I wasn't feeling well, and wanted to borrow the car. My sisters practically fainted, they couldn't believe that I could be so generous and thoughtful. As a whole my family wondered if I could continue. I told them I would try to be that way forever."

"During these ten days I didn't have any fights with either my sister or my brother which was very unusual and I could tell that they were trying to get me mad at times because they didn't know what was going on. My family all appreciated the fact that I was helping my mom more than what I already did and my dad wasn't as crabby with me as he usually was. Both my brother and sister when they saw how I was helping my mom decided they were going to do the same and they did. I found after this that we were all getting along better than ever before."

"It seems to me that the whole family and I get along better. I know my family noticed a difference in me because I didn't fuss with my brother and sister, we usually do, but I would just be quiet and it seems to work."

"The results of the things was that I had won the respect of my sister instead of losing it. At first I was just waiting for the ten days to be up so I could knock the socks off my sister, but as the days went on I started to think differently. I think the ten days you assigned us were worth more to me than to anyone else."

These extracts are from "Progress Reports from Junior and Senior High Schools, Moral and Spiritual Values in Education," a report from the Curriculum Division of the Los Angeles City School Districts.[1] Schools of the Los Angeles School Districts are working for improved teaching of moral and spiritual values in education. The program is organized around a list of "Key Qualities." Teachers of all subjects and grades contribute as they can to the development of these qualities and ideas. Experiences from 28 junior high schools are shared in the report. Evaluation of results to this point are largely subjective, as in the report of an English teacher,

"I feel that the best proof of whether this study is worth the time spent is that in all my classes where I took the time, citizenship and scholarship showed marked improvement and all of the classroom activities were benefited."

An increase in the number of teachers participating in the program, and increased emphasis on the vital values was noted when a recent survey was made to evaluate the techniques, materials, and the progress made in connection with the program of moral and spiritual values. When a questionnaire was sent to one junior high school, the report below was returned from 58 teachers of that school, in addition to reports of many additional activities and anecdotal records. The report may suggest activities in which your own school may wish to engage.

SAMPLE REPORT

1. Check the Key Qualities that you have emphasized with your pupils in classrooms and in other activities.

[1] Publication No. SC-343, May, 1947. 54 pages, mimeographed. $1.00.

Double check items that you have particularly emphasized.

	X	XX	Total
Cooperation	1	57	58
Honesty	5	53	58
Respect for Law	13	45	58
Responsibility	3	55	58
Kindness	19	35	54
Appreciation	24	26	50
Loyalty	24	21	45
Generosity	24	21	45
Good Will	18	23	41
Reverence	15	16	31
Courage	15	14	29
Faith	12	11	23

2. Check the following techniques and activities that you have used. Double check items that you have found most helpful.

	X	XX	Total
Cooperative planning of classroom activities with pupils	23	20	43
Democratic organization of classroom	27	23	50
Evaluation with pupils of all projects and activities	27	15	42
Competitive activities to stimulate self-control, good will and other qualities	20	22	42
Insistence on accuracy and precision	18	40	58
Insistence on orderliness in all class work	24	34	58
Activities to promote teamwork	15	15	30
Group singing	6	0	6
Dramatizations or impersonations	4	5	9
Oral reports on Key qualities	12	10	22
Class discussions	17	10	27
Listening to radio programs	7	3	10
Mock radio broadcasts	2	1	3
Showing motion pictures	17	4	21
Electrical transcriptions	6	4	10
Writing themes on specific application of ideas	12	2	14
Writing of poetry	6	1	7
Choral reading	6	4	10
Interpretive reading by teacher	17	3	20
Memorizing poetry or prose	11	6	17
Using beautiful prayers such as The Lord's Prayer, as a part of the opening exercises for a class or assembly	4	1	5
Analyzing The Lord's Prayer in teaching brotherhood of man	1	0	1
Using Psalms for choral choir or reading	3	3	6
Reading sections from Bible in class	1	0	1
Memorizing sections from Bible, such as:			
Ten commandments			
Golden rule			
Other selections	3	2	5
Reading Bible stories and applying moral values to present-day living	2	1	3
Keeping notebooks on Key Qualities containing collections of poetry, prose, etc.		3	3
Oral reading of well chosen selections by the pupils	9	4	13
Class discussion of such articles as —Both Sides of the Desk, in the October 8, 1945, Scholastic, dealing with teacher-pupil point of view	2	9	11
Stressing of appreciation of all religions	14	14	28

Bible in Schools

The Bible is an important literary and historical reference book, said most of 144 administrators who were questioned in North Dakota. They reported to Barton Aarthun from 19 schools that no Bibles were in either the grade or high school libraries. Half of the administrators felt that the Bible study course should not be given in the public schools, since it tends to induce unnecessary controversies. About one out of five had offered the course in Bible study during the past three years, and about one out of four had conducted a dismiss time program of religious education, he found in his study of religious education in the public schools of North Dakota, a master's thesis at the University of North Dakota.

"The most frequently voiced complaint against the schools of today, according to a recent Gallup Poll, is lack of discipline, or lack of fundamental character training." So Margaret Wasson begins a description in *The Texas Outlook* (November 1948, page 26) of a "Daily Five Minute Investment in Character Education" in the Highland Park Junior High School of Dallas, Texas. Principal, teachers, students, all participate in the inspirational program. A mimeographed bulletin of 16 pages describing the program has been prepared by Maude McElvaney, sponsor of the program. (50 cents.)

"By our silences in secular education, we have indoctrinated children to believe that God does not exist and that Jesus Christ does not matter," says George A. Buttrick, Presbyterian minister, in his book *Christ and Man's Dilemma.*

To Some, Freedom of Thought Is Subversive

By D. D. DARLAND

THROUGHOUT the history of civilization, men have sought to define and classify what is and what is not subversive doctrine. Too often these attempts at classification have grown into world-wide dogmas and panaceas. Few can doubt that certain attempts at defining "what is subversive" have, before our very eyes, produced individuals and groups who believe firmly that they have the infallible governmental practices in mind which would produce the perfect world. Psychiatrists would agree that it is perfectly possible for the human mind to come to believe itself infallible. Indeed for examples we need only consider minds of men like Hitler and Stalin.

Both the advocates of Communism and Fascism presuppose the existence of a perfect governmental form for controlling the world. Advocates of either then must necessarily jockey themselves into the position of believing they are among the chosen ones to carry out their respective perfect ways. This too is psychologically possible. Fear, anxiety, prejudice and insecurity all lend support to the development of such minds. Thinking becomes anchored to the belief that there exists the perfect pattern for perfect government, thus any thought or act which does not agree with their respective dogmas is necessarily squelched into submission. Thereby, the common denominator of Communism and Fascism is partially explained. Both must depend on stamping out all disagreement if they are to continue to exist. Their respective ends justify any means, regardless how cruel, because the ends they are working for are assumed perfect and infallible.

But the mere presence of two groups, each advocating a perfect plan for administering the world, produces hatred for one another. The world then has two groups each claiming to be infallible.

In our country mature and intelligent people do not believe that any government on earth is infallible; furthermore we realize and accept that never will such a government exist—not even in the minds of men. It is the creative spirit of man upon which the progress of democracy depends. What

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constitutes a normal man does change, and therein lies our great hope. (This merely means there isn't any ceiling as to the heights to which civilization may climb.) There is no infallible end-point to democracy, which is a great safeguard because it prohibits us from using cruel means to reach an end.

In brief, in a democracy we don't know exactly where we are going and admit it. We put our faith in freedom of thought. Democracy advocates using all the humanitarian devices possible to encourage the development, expression and action of the creative spirit of man. We believe in force only as a last resort, but are great believers in revolution if it becomes necessary to protect free thought.

By contrast advocates of Communism or Fascism because of their distorted psychological behavior are sure of where they are going. Thus it follows that they dare not allow any subversive activities of the people.

Thus, freedom of thought, *which includes subversive thought,* will be with us if democracy is to prevail. This is true because it is simple logic that to squelch *"subversive thought"* presupposes a group or an individual with the ability of saying what exactly is subversive thought and what is not. Defining what is subversive further presupposes an ultimate end-point in government clearly in the minds of those who are drawing the line between subversive and non-subversive doctrine. When this happens the foundations of Communism or Fascism have been established. Such a procedure becomes an act of setting up a police state in an attempt to keep from becoming one.

Faith in freedom of thought is democracy's weapon against those who would destroy it. Man's freedom to think is essential to his survival. Free thinking is his means of survival. Free public education is our great democratic invention to insure freedom of thought.

A Teacher Looks Back, and Sees

The Big Muff

By J. R. SHANNON

WILLIAM HICKS was a precocious chap. Although only fifteen and a high-school freshman, he was six feet two and weighed one hundred eighty—the same height and weight as John Sherman, the principal—and had a stiff black mustache which he let grow. One of Mr. Sherman's first acts after assuming the principalship at Eeville late in the school term—well after midyear—was to give a group intelligence test to all high-school pupils. The results of the test showed that William was just as precocious mentally as he was physically.

"Good morning, Mr. Sherman. What have I done now? Miss Hill sent me in to see you, but I haven't been up to anything this time. Honest!"

"No, William. Nobody is trying to ride your tail this time. I have been studying your case, William, and I find it a very exceptional one. That test I gave the first of the week shows that you are the smartest pupil in the whole school."

"Thehellyousay." One word—one word, just as *damnyankee* is sometimes one word in Dixie. It was William's only expletive—one he used on all occasions of slight surprise.

William never regarded Mr. Sherman as his superior. He seemed to recognize, subconsciously or maybe consciously, that just as he was Mr. Sherman's physical equal, so was he his mental equal also. But he was not cocky about it. And Mr. Sherman reacted toward William in like manner. He regarded him more as a man of affairs than as a schoolboy.

"Yes, William, that's right. You could carry six high-school subjects just as easily as the ordinary freshman carries four. But what do I find? You are carrying only three. Miss Hill tells me you dropped out of her Latin class away back in September. Why did you drop it, William?"

"It's a lot of nuts. I see no sense in it. I bet you don't either, Mr. Sherman, if you'd be honest."

"As a matter of fact, William, for you I don't. But in a small school like Eeville we can't have much election of subject matter. You either take that or take nothing, and you have chosen nothing."

"Nothing is right, brother."

"But look, William; you are too bright to be wasting your time like this. You can go a long way if you only want to. Whether you see any sense in Latin or not, it is one way to pile up some credits and graduate. Now here's what I'll do, William: If you'll agree to play ball with me, I'll arrange with Miss Hill for you to do individual work in Latin, work at your own rate, call on her as often as you or she think advisable, and then at the end of the term take the same examinations as the other freshmen. If you pass, I'll give you credit for the year's work. You have twelve weeks yet to catch up the back work and come out with your class. In the meantime you'll be worthily occupied and less likely to get into all these silly scrapes which other teachers think is your only talent. Is it agreed?"

"You and I have made a deal, Mr. Sherman."

As the freshman algebra teacher, Mr. Sherman was confident that William never cracked a book, although the outstanding member of the class. In traditional manner, he tried to catch William off guard by assigning him to put the most difficult written problem of the list on the board. The result was always the same: William strode to the blackboard, glanced at the problem (for the first time) a few seconds, cocking his head to one side as he read with one eye (he was blind in the other eye), and then wrote the equation.

"But, William, show how you got the equation. I'm afraid *the class* doesn't understand. Start by showing what you let X equal, then after a series

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of steps lead up to your equation. You must help teach as well as find answers. We are interested in procedures as much as results."

"What's the use? This is right, isn't it?"

"Yes, William, it's right, but *the class* can't keep up with your thinking."

"O such dull and useless piddle-paddle! Primary stuff!" But William went back and filled in the earlier steps leading up to the equation. And then in one more line he wrote the answer.

"There you go again, William, traveling too fast for us to follow. Show how you got the answer from the equation."

"What's the use? It's right, isn't it?"

William had no difficulty in completing freshman Latin with the class.

The following fall all teachers in the small high school at Eeville were new except Mr. Sherman. Such ones as Mr. Sherman wanted were not interested, and the ones who wished to remain were ones Mr. Sherman didn't want. A not unusual situation in village schools!

In an early autumn teachers' meeting the new teachers were unanimous in their denunciation of "this awful William. He is dumb and lazy and mean."

"Why, I am astonished at your comments. William is the brightest pupil in the whole school." But only laughter, jeers, and point-blank denunciations constituted the faculty's reaction to Mr. Sherman's defense. So I looked for William.

"William, you got me in bad last night."

"Thehellyousay! How was that?"

"It was in teacher's meeting. The new teachers have the wrong impression of you, William. They think you are dumb, and when I told them you were the brightest pupil in school, they laughed at me. Now I want you to save my reputation. I want you to show those teachers between now and the next teachers' meeting in two weeks that I know what I am talking about."

"Agreed, Boss," as he squinted his one eye and smiled.

At the next teachers' meeting Mr. Sherman was complacently smiling up his sleeve, his estimate of William vindicated by the teachers' enthusiastic exclamations: "That boy William! Did you ever see such a mental tornado? He is nothing short of a genius."

"I am pleased to see that William has salvaged my reputation. His is an interesting case. Maybe you teachers didn't know it, but William is a diamond in the rough—very rough—who has had too little chance to sparkle. He is a woods colt. No one knows who his father is. Perhaps even his mother doesn't know. Whoever he is, I'll venture he is a roving genius. Some people have suggested it may be some professor from the state university at Beeton, seven miles away—not such wide-range roving in that case.

"But to be serious, William has never had a chance. The sigma of his birth sticks firmly in the prejudices of the local saints. He is the Huckleberry Finn of Eeville. He lives with his grandmother in a shack at the edge of town and delivers washings which she does—without a washing machine—to support the the two of them. William is a man physically and mentally, but only a boy legally, and has no lawful means for earning much money on his own. What a blessing it would be if William had a better environment—if he could live in a home with means and affection, in a community where his irregular origin is not known."

After coming to Mr. Sherman's rescue by burning a hot intellectual trail for the two weeks, William lapsed back into nothingness. No motive for further effort.

"No motive, Mr. Nichols. That is William's difficulty. William is on your scrub team now; what chance has he of making the regulars? He is a strapping husky, and size counts in basketball. Too bad we don't have football. I'm sure he would be a star lineman."

"I doubt whether he can ever make it, Mr. Sherman. His eye is his handicap. With only one eye, he can't gauge distance, and therefore he fumbles too many passes. It would be fine for William's personality if he could make the regulars. God knows he needs some way to shine legitimately. But the fans won't stand for our playing him while better performers ride the bench. Besides, it wouldn't be fair to the better players."

"No. You are right, Mr. Nichols. There is an ethical consideration involved. The race must be to the swift. But we should provide races in all events. Our program should be broad enough to allow every pupil an opportunity to shine in activities which the public approves and applauds."

"Well said, Mr. Sherman, but that is your problem. I'm just the basketball coach. However, the extra-curriculum should not be regarded as a bait for the curriculum. Every tub should sit on its own bottom. Teachers of the various subjects should provide their own incentives. If their subjects can't be defended on grounds of direct values, they are in bad business. I see no more reason for saying William must pass in geometry before he can play basketball than for saying he must earn a letter in basketball before he can take geometry."

But for William, the stray, the woods colt, the plebeian, the one-eyed superboy, basketball was the only thing the school sponsored which had attraction. It never occurred to William to take books home from school, but out-of-school time for basketball was relished. Even Sundays, if he could break in, found William on the basketball floor.

Eeville, like many villages in the early twenties, had no gymnasium. Basketball was played in an abandoned down-town store building. Every town has empty store buildings. William, with two other strangers, in breaking in one November Sunday, accidentally broke a plate-glass window valued at twenty dollars.

"It is not with the object of reprimand that I insist on your paying for the damage you did. It is just logical consequence of your act. Will you please remain awhile, William, after Donald and Ralph are excused? I want to see you alone."

"I don't have six dollars and sixty-seven cents, Mr. Sherman," after the other boys had left, "and I don't know how I can raise it. I'm not objecting to the assessment; it is fair and right. But I simply don't have the money and can't get it—honestly."

"I am aware of that, William. That is why I asked to see you alone. Donald's and Ralph's fathers can pay their shares of the damage, but you are different. Here is my proposal: I'll lend you the money, you writing me a note for the amount. Then when you are older and self-supporting you can pay me back without interest. Is that fair enough?"

"Too fair, Mr. Sherman. Thanks a lot."

Had Mr. Sherman admitted it, he had a slight element of self-interest in lending William the money for his share of the assessment; he used that one-third as a lever in collecting from Donald and Ralph.

Mr. Sherman never saw William any more. He heard in a round-about way that William had taken a job blocking cars at the stone mill, having reached the legal age for public employment and for dropping out of school. Some years later, Mr. Sherman got another round-about report that William was serving a term in the state reformatory for bootlegging. Still more years later, Mr. Sherman heard—again round-about—that William had been killed in a freakish automobile accident. At any rate, he was certain of one thing: he held a worthless note for six dollars and sixty-seven cents, signed by a minor.

"Dad, who was this William I hear you speak about to Mother from time to time? He must have been a whiz-bang, from what you say."

"Yes, Tut, he was. When we moved to Eeville, William was about the age you are now, and about the same size, but he was even more developed. William never had the chances you have. There is a good prospect of your amounting to something. You already have done much better than William, age for age. William was another of those 'flowers born to blush unseen.' God, how I wish I had known then what I know now. Snodgrass wasn't in it in comparison with me, Tut. William was my big muff."

Out of every 100 boys and girls who come up through the lower elementary grades in West Virginia, reports a committee of the West Virginia State Education Association, 97 reach grade 6, 88 reach grade 7, 80 reach grade 8, 67 reach grade 9, 49 reach grade 10, 40 reach grade 11, and 35 finish high school.

In one classroom in the Cabrillo Elementary School during World War II, only one out of seven children has a father at home, Mrs. Edith C. Smith, a teacher in the San Diego High School, told the San Diego Round Table, in May, 1944.

At least 4,600,000 persons, double the present peak enrollment, should register for college education in the United States, thinks the President's Commission on Higher Education, of which George F. Zook is chairman. "Higher education is an investment, not a cost," they say, which will pay off in the social welfare, higher standards of living, less crime, better health, etc.

Social Status in Education

By W. LLOYD WARNER, MARCHIA MEEKER, AND KENNETH E. EELLS

IN THE BRIGHT GLOW and warm presence of the American dream all men are born free and equal. Everyone in that dream has the right and often the duty to try to succeed and to do his best to reach the top. Its two fundamental themes and propositions, that all of us are equal and that each of us has the right to the chance of reaching the top, are mutually contradictory: for if all men are equal there can be no top level to aim for, no bottom one to get away from; there can be no superior or inferior positions, but only one common level into which all Americans are born and in which all of them will spend their lives. We all know such perfect equality of position and opportunity does not exist.

When some men learn that *all* the American Dream does not fit *all* that is true about the realities of our life they denounce the Dream and deny the truth of *any* of it. Fortunately most of us are wiser and better adjusted to social reality; we recognize that, though it is called a dream and though some of it is false, by virtue of our firm belief in it we have made some of it true. Despite the presence of social hierarchies which place people at higher and lower levels in American communities, the principles of democracy do operate; the Christian dogma that all men are equal in the sight of God because He is our Father and we are His spiritual children, buttressed by the democratic faith in the equality of men and the insistence on their equal rights as citizens, is a powerful influence in the daily life of America.

EQUALITY IS WELL TAUGHT

From grade school on we have learned to cite chapter and verse proving from the lives of many of the great men of American history that we can start at the bottom and climb to the highest peaks of achievement when we have a few brains and a will to do. Our mass magazines and newspapers print and reprint the legendary story of rags to riches and tell over and over again the Ellis-Island-to-Park-Avenue saga in the actual lives of contemporary successful immigrant men and women. From mere repetition it might be thought the public would tire of the theme; the names are all that vary and stories, like those of children, remain the same. But we never do tire of this theme, for it says what we need to know and what we want to hear.

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Among people around us we sometimes recognize men who have got ahead, who have been successfully upward mobile, and who have reached levels of achievement beyond even the dreams of most men. Many Americans by their own success have learned that, for them enough of the Dream is true to make all of it real. The examples from history, from the world around us, and from our own experience provide convincing evidence that, although full equality is absent, opportunity for advancement is present sufficiently to permit the rise of a few from the bottom and a still larger number from the middle to the higher economic and social levels. Although we know the statement that everyone is equal but that some men are higher than others is contradictory, and although some of us smile or become angry when we hear that "all of us are equal but some are more equal than others," we still accept both parts of this proposition either by understressing one part

* This article is adapted from a chapter in the forthcoming book, "The Measurement of Social Status," to be published in January by the Science Research Associates, 228 South Wabash Street, Chicago, Illinois. 256 pp., cloth, $4.75. The book provides techniques for identifying class levels and the rating of any individual in social status, with discussions of the functions of such ratings in vocational guidance.

of the proposition or by letting all of it go as a paradox we feel to be true.

Information of Social Status Is Needed, Too

Our society does an excellent job in giving us an explicit knowledge of, and good argument for, the equalitarian aspects of our life. We have much scholarly knowledge about these workings of democracy; but we have little scientific knowledge about the powerful presence of social status and how it works for good and evil in the lives of all of us. Yet to live successfully and adaptively in America each of us must adjust his life to each of these contradictions, not just one of them, and we must make the most of each. Our knowledge of the democratic aspects of America is learned directly as part of our social heritage, but our understanding of the principle of social status tends to be implicit and to be learned obliquely and through hard and sometimes bitter experience. The lives of many are destroyed because they do not understand the workings of social class.[1]

Our great state papers, the orations of great men, and the principles and pronouncements of politicians and statesmen tell us of the equality of all men. Each school boy learns and relearns it; but most of us are dependent upon experience and indirect statement to learn about "the wrong side of the tracks," "the Gold Coast and the slums," and "the top and bottom of the social heap." We are proud of those facts of American life that fit the pattern we are taught, but somehow we are often ashamed of those equally important social facts which demonstrate the presence of social class. Consequently we tend to deny them, or, worse, denounce them and by so doing deny their existence and magically make them disappear from consciousness. We use such expressions as the Century of the Common Man to insist on our democratic faith; but we know that ordinarily for Common Men to exist as a class uncommon superior and inferior men also exist.

Class Order Is Pervasive Influence

Recent scientific studies of social class in the several regions of the United States demonstrate that it is a major determinant of individual decisions and social actions; that every major area of American life is directly and indirectly influenced by our class order; and that the major decisions of most individuals are partly controlled by it. To act intelligently and know consciously how this basic factor in American life affects us and our society it is essential and necessary that we have an explicit understanding of what our class order is, how it works, and what it does to the lives and personalities who live in it. Our most democratic institutions, including our schools, churches, business organizations, government, and even our family life are molded by its all-pervading and exceedingly subtle but powerful influence.

Division of Labor Brings Class Orders

When societies are complex and service large populations they always possess some kind of status system which, by its own values, places people in higher or lower positions. Only the very simple hunting and gathering tribes, with very small populations and very simple social problems, are without systems of rank; but when a society is complex, when there are large numbers of individuals in it pursuing diverse and complex activities and functioning in a multiplicity of ways, such positions and behaviors are evaluated and ranked.[2] This happens primarily because, to maintain itself, the society must coordinate the efforts of all its members into common enterprises necessary for the preservation of the group, and it must solidify and integrate all these enterprises into a working whole. In other words, as the division of labor increases and the social units become more numerous and diverse, the need for coordination and integration also increases, and, when satisfied, enables the larger group to survive and develop.

Those who occupy coordinating positions acquire power and prestige. They do so because their actions partly control the behavior of the individuals who look to them for direction. Within this simple control there is simple power. Those who exercise such power either acquire prestige directly from it, or have gained it from other sources sufficiently to be raised to a coordinating position. For example, among many primitive peoples a simple fishing expedition may be or-

[1] Jurgen Ruesch, et al., *Chronic Diseases and Psychological Invalidism, a Psychosomatic Study* (New York: American Society for Research in Psychosomatic Medicine, 1946). A research at the University of California Hospital by Ruesch and others which demonstrates that this can be literally true; their results show how certain serious physical and mental ailments are directly attributable to social class and mobility strivings and anxieties.

[2] Hobhouse, Wheeler, and Ginsberg.

ganized so that the men who fish and handle each boat are under the direction of one leader. The efforts of each boat are directed by the leader and, in turn, each boat is integrated into the total enterprise by its leader's taking orders from his superior. The same situation prevails in a modern factory. Small plants with a small working force and simple problems possess a limited hierarchy, perhaps no more than an owner who bosses all the workers. But a large industrial enterprise, with complex activities and problems, like General Motors, needs an elaborate hierarchy of supervision. The position in a great industrial empire which integrates and coordinates all of the positions beneath it throughout all the supervising levels down to the workers has great power and prestige. The same holds true for political, religious, educational, and other social institutions; the more complex the group and the more diverse the functions and activities, the more elaborate its status system is likely to be. We will amplify this point later.

The studies of other societies have demonstrated one other basic point; the more complex the technological and economic structure, the more complex the social structure, so that some (The Marxians and many classical economists) argue that technological advancement is the cause of social complexity and all class and status systems. It cannot be denied that economic and technological factors are important in the determination of class and status orders. We must not lose sight of the fact, however, that the social system, with its beliefs, values, and rules, which governs human behavior may well determine what kind of technology and what kind of economic institutions will survive or thrive in any given tribe or nation. In any case, social complexity is necessary for economic advancement. Furthermore, social complexity is a basic factor determining the presence or absence of class.

Class Orders in Pussia

The Marxians have argued that the economic changes our society is undergoing always result in a class war in which "the proletariat" will be triumphant and out of which a "classless society" will result. The authors do not agree with them for several reasons. The principal reasons are: (1) the presence of a class order does not necessarily mean class conflict—the relations of the classes can be and often are amiable and peaceful; (2) classless societies (without differential status systems) are impossible where there is complexity for the reasons previously given. Russia's Communistic system, supposedly designed to produce a pure equalitarian society, necessarily has citizens who are ranked above and below each other. Generals there outrank privates; commissars outrank the rank and file; and members of the Politburo, the ordinary comrade. Occupants of these higher ranks in Russia tend to associate together; those of the lower ranks form their own groups. Their children are trained according to the rank of their parents. This means that the younger generation learns these status differences, thereby strengthening status differences between levels and fostering the further development of social class in Communistic Russia.

All this has occurred despite the fact the Russians have removed the means of production from private hands and placed them under the control of the State ("the people"). The economic factor which by Marxian doctrine produced social classes is largely absent; yet social hierarchies and social class are present for the reason that Russia is a complex society and needs them to survive.

These status trends in Russia will undoubtedly continue, for her population is vast, her people diverse, her problems immensely complex, and elaborate systems of coordination and control are necessary for such a nation to maintain itself. The Communist ideals of economic and political equality cannot produce perfect equality within the complexities of Russian life.

The Status System Is Part of a Complex Society

But let us return to the United States. We, too, have a complex, highly diverse society. We, too, possess an elaborate division of labor and a ramified technology; and we, too, possess a variety of rank orders built on the need of maintaining unity and cohesion in making our common enterprises successful. Men occupying high and low positions possess families. Their families and their activities are identified with their social position. Families of the same position tend to associate together. They do this informally or through cliques, associations, or other institutions. This social matrix provides the structure of our class system. Chil-

dren are always born to their families' position. Through life they may increase or decrease their status. The family thereby strengthens and helps maintain our class order. Social status in America is somewhat like man's alimentary canal; he may not like the way it works and he may want to forget that certain parts of it are part of him, but he knows it is necessary for his very existence. So the status system, often an object of our disapproval, is present and necessary in our complex social world.

If we cannot eliminate the system of status, we can and must work to keep it as democratic and equalitarian as possible. To be successful, we must see to it that each American is given his chance to move in the social scale. This ideal of equality of opportunity is essential for our democracy. To do this intelligently, we must know what our class order is and what can be done to make it conform most closely to the needs of the American people.

More Than Economic Factors Determine Class

Economic factors are significant and important in determining the class position of any family or person, influencing the kind of behavior we find in any class, and contributing their share to the present form of our status system. But, while significant and necessary, the economic factors are not sufficient to predict where a particular family or individual will be or to explain completely the phenomena of social class. Something more than a large income is necessary for high social position. Money must be translated into socially approved behavior and possessions, and they in turn must be translated into intimate participation with, and acceptance by, members of a superior class.

This is well illustrated by what is supposed to be a true story of what happened to a Mr. John Smith, a newly rich man in a far-western community. He wanted to get into a particular social club of some distinction and significance in the city. By indirection he let it be known and was told by his friends in the club they had submitted his name to the membership committee.

Mr. Abner Grey, one of the leading members of the club and active on its membership committee, was a warm supporter of an important philanthropy in this city. It was brought to his attention that Mr. Smith, rather than contributing the large donation that had been expected of him, had given only a nominal sum to the charity.

When Mr. Smith heard nothing more about his application, he again approached one of the board members. After much evasion he was told that Mr. Grey was the most influential man on the Board and he would be wise to see that gentleman. After trying several times to make an appointment with Mr. Grey, he burst into Grey's office unannounced.

"Why the hell, Abner, am I being kept out of the X club?"

Mr. Grey politely evaded the question. He asked Mr. Smith to be seated. He inquired after Mr. Smith's health, about the health of his wife, and inquired about other matters of simple convention.

Finally, Mr. Smith said, "Ab, why the hell am I being kept out of your club?"

"But, John, you're not. Everyone in the X club thinks you're a fine fellow."

"Well, what's wrong?"

"Well, John, we don't think you've got the *kind* of money necessary for being a good member of the X club. We don't think you'd be happy in the X club."

"Like hell, I haven't. I could buy and sell a half dozen of some of your board members."

"I know that, John, but that isn't what I said. I did not say the amount of money. I said the kind of money."

"What do you mean?"

"Well, John, my co-workers on the charity drive tell me you only gave a few dollars to our campaign and we had you down for a few thousand."

For a moment Mr. Smith was silent. Then he grinned. So did Mr. Grey. Smith took out his fountain pen and checkbook. "How much?"

At the next meeting of the X club Mr. Smith was unanimously elected to its membership.

Mr. Smith translated his money into philanthropy acceptable to the dominant group, he received their sponsorship, and finally became a participant in the X club. The "right" kind of house, the "right" neighborhood, the "right" furniture, the proper behavior, all are symbols of status that can ultimately be translated into social acceptance by those who have sufficient money to aspire to higher levels than they presently enjoy.

To belong to a particular level in the social-class

system of America means that a family or individual has gained acceptance as an equal by those who belong in the class. The behavior in this class and the participation of those in it must be rated by the rest of the community as being at a particular place in the social scale.

Although our democratic heritage makes us disapprove, our class order helps control a number of important functions. It unequally divides the highly and lowly valued things of our society among the several classes according to their rank. Our marriage rules conform to the rules of class, for the majority of marriages are between people of the same class. No class system is so rigid that it completely prohibits marriages above and below one's own class. Furthermore an open class system such as ours permits a person through his lifetime to move up or down from the level into which he was born. Vertical social mobility for individuals or families is characteristic of all class systems. The principal forms of mobility in this country are through the use of money, education, occupation, talent, skill, philanthropy, sex, and marriage.

People Move Higher by Education

Although economic mobility is still important, it seems likely now that more people move to higher positions by education than by any other route. We have indicated before this that the mere possession of money is insufficient for gaining and keeping a higher social position. This is equally true of all other forms of mobility. In every case there must be social acceptance.

Class varies from community to community. The new city is less likely than an old one to have a well organized class order; this is also true for cities whose growth has been rapid as compared with those which have not been disturbed by huge increases in population from other regions or countries by the rapid displacement of old industries by new ones. The mill town's status hierarchy is more likely to follow the occupational hierarchy of the mill than the levels of evaluated participation found in market towns or those with diversified industries. Suburbs of large metropolises tend to respond to selective factors which reduce the number of classes to one or a very few. They do not represent or express all the cultural factors which make up the social pattern of an ordinary city.

Yet systematic studies (see Chapter 15) from coast to coast, in cities large and small and of many economic types, indicate that, despite the variations and diversity, class levels do exist and that they conform to a particular pattern of organization.

Education is now competing with economic mobility as the principal route to success. Fewer men today rise from the bottom to the top places in industry and business than a generation ago. More and more the sons of executives are replacing their fathers in such positions, leaving fewer positions into which the sons of those farther down can climb from the ranks. Captains of industry educate their sons to take their places or to occupy similar places in other industries. Also, more and more top jobs in industry are being filled by men coming from the technical and engineering schools or from the universities. The route up for them is no longer through a hierarchy of increasing skill to management and ownership as it was two generations ago. The prudent mobile man today must prepare himself by education if he wishes to fill an important job and provide his family with the money and prestige necessary to get "the better things of life."

It Is Hard for Lower-Class Children to Get Schooling

Social-class research demonstrates that our educational system performs the dual task of aiding social mobility and, at the same time, working effectively to hinder it. This ceases to be a paradox when all the facts are examined.

In the lower grades our public schools are filled by children from all walks of life. Since education is free in the public schools, since everyone has a right to it and our laws try to keep children in school, and since it is common knowledge that "if you want to get ahead you must get an education," it would be assumed that children at, and below, the Common Man level would stay in school and equip themselves for mobility. Such is not the case. The social and educational systems work to eliminate the majority of them and permit only a few to get through.

It has been estimated that, whereas 80 per cent of the upper and upper-middle class children actually go to college, only 20 per cent of the lower-middle and five per cent of the lower-class chil-

dren get there.[3] The evidence indicates that most, if not all, of the children of the top classes complete their preparation and go on to college, whereas those from the lower classes start dropping out in the grade schools and continue to do so in increasing numbers in high school. Only a very few of them go on to college. The educational conveyor belt drops lower-class children at the beginning and bottom of the educational route and carries those from the higher classes a longer distance, nearly all the upper-class children going to the end of the line.

Predictive Values of Status Ranking

If the teachers and school administrators in grade and high schools know the class positions of the children who enter their schools they can predict who will and who will not get to college. Furthermore, with such knowledge the educator can act to change a negative prediction to a positive one for the bright, ambitious, lower and lower-middle class children whose chances for higher education are now very slight.

The reason for the high mortality rate among the lower class children becomes apparent when one examines the relation of the teachers and the other children to them. We now know that the intelligence of all lower-class children is not responsible for their failures in school for some of their I.Q.'s are equal to those higher up. Although inferior intelligence has been the most frequent and plausible explanation,[4] I.Q. tests equated to social class demonstrate that differential intelligence is not the answer.

Teachers Try to Be Democratic, But—!

The teacher, it must be said, although one of the most democratically minded people in America, tends to favor the children of the classes Above the Common Man and to show less interest in those below that level. Studies in the Deep South, New England, and the Middlewest indicate that they rate the school work of children from the higher classes in accordance with their family's social position and conversely give low ratings to the work of the lower-class children.

How can this be? The answer is that most of it is done through ignorance about social class and how it operates in our lives. To be more specific, part of the general answer lies within the teacher as a product of our class system. The teacher conscientiously applies his own best values to his rating of the child. The middle-class teacher, and over three-fourths of them are middle-class, applies middle-class values. For the upper and upper-middle-class children possess traits that rank high and are positive; lower-class children have characteristics that are negative and are ranked low.

Children Judge Each Other

Perhaps the most powerful influence of social class on the educational careers of our children, and certainly one of the most decisive and crucial situations in settling the ultimate class position of children from the Common Man and lower-class levels, is the influence of other children on the child's desire to stay in school. If the world of the child is pleasant, rewarding and increases his self-esteem, he is likely to want to stay and do well. If it is punishing and decreases his self respect, he is likely to do poorly and want to quit.

In a study of children's ratings of other children in a middle-western community, Neugarten found that the children of the upper and upper-middle classes were rated high by all other children for such traits as good looks, liking for school, leadership, friendship, and many other favorable personal traits; lower-class children were ranked low or, more often than not, were given a negative rating and were said to be bad looking, dirty, and "people you would not want for friends."[5] When it is remembered that these children were only in the fifth and sixth grades and that each child in these grades was supposedly rated by all other children with no reference to status, we can see how quickly class values influence behavior and have their decisive effect in molding the personalities and influencing the life careers of Americans from their earliest years.

School for the children of the populous lower classes is not the satisfactory place it is for the middle and upper classes. Given children of equal

[3] Robert J. Havighurst and Hilda Taba, Adolescent Character and Personality (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1948).

[4] The unpublished studies of Allison Davis, Robert J. Havighurst, and their collaborators in the class bias *within* the I.Q. tests themselves provide powerful evidence to show that the tests are not "culture free" but reflect the middle and upper-class cultural bias of those who fabricate them. For example, the tests, being largely products of upper-middle class people, reflect their biases and only middle-and higher-class children are properly prepared to take them.

[5] Bernice L. Neugarten, "Social Class and Friendship among School Children," *American Journal of Sociology*, LI, No. 4 (January, 1946).

intellect, ability, and interest, it can be predicted by the use of class analysis that a large percentage of those from the lower classes will be out of school before the sophomore year in high school and none of the upper-class children except those physically or mentally handicapped will quit school.

Studies of the relations of workers and managers in business and industry demonstrate how class continues to operate selectively when the young people leave school. Management is bringing college-trained men into the lower ranks of supervisors and promoting fewer from the ranks because it finds that the workers, while good men technically, do not have the necessary knowledge about handling men and relating themselves effectively to the higher reaches of management. Their education is often insufficient to make them good prospects for continuing advancement. The hiring of formally educated men effectively puts a ceiling over the legitimate aspirations of workers who expect to rise in the ranks. The blocking of the worker's mobility and the encouragement of college trained men is the ultimate payoff of what began in the grade schools. Mobility for workers is becoming more difficult; this means for the United States generally that the American Dream is becoming less real.[6]

Understanding of the Status System Can Help

If our society is to use more effectively the brains and native talent of this great army of young people, it must learn how to train them. To do this it must keep them in school for a sufficient time to equip them with the skills and disciplines necessary for them to function satisfactorily in our economic and social world. Children as well as teachers and school administrators must have a conscious and explicit understanding of social class and a simple and easy way to use such knowledge in solving problems. Personality and I.Q. tests are important instruments to guide the teacher, but unless they are supplemented with instruments to measure and count the effects of social class they are insufficient.

[6] See W. Lloyd Warner and J. O. Low, *The Social System of the Modern Factory*, Volume IV, *The Yankee City Series* (New Haven, The Yale University Press, 1947) for a discussion of how many of the strikes and conflicts with management are determined by the factor of worker's blocked opportunity.

Professor of the Jack Pine

(Continued from Page 106)

"Hang onto it," we told the Professor. "Hang onto it and don't let anyone steal it. They may try."

An audit would cost too much, Head himself couldn't have built a real statement, so the burden of proof had to be turned back. It would be bluff against bluff, except for the fact that Head had his receipts. If he could hang onto them, there would be that one advantage.

I was several thousand miles away when Head wrote to me about it. It was a long letter, and here is most of it:

Dear Sir:

I want to write and thank you for telling me to keep those receipts in a safe place. They came all right and turned everything upside down. They went through my rooms and my office at school. They broke open the safe, and even went through the pupils' desks. We were all off at church that morning, nobody got back until afternoon. It was sure a mess.

Maybe someone might find this letter, so I won't tell you where they were in a letter like this. I've still got all the receipts, though, and they know I've got them. I took some of them down to the bank and showed them to the president of the bank the next day, just to prove it.

I guess that ends the whole business, so far as I can find out. Everyone around knows what they did, and everyone knows that I've still got the proof and they haven't. I think the bank president thought it was funny, too. Everyone thinks they were mighty funny, and the laugh's on them now. If they hadn't made such fools of themselves, I guess they'd got my job, but with everyone laughing their heads off about it, they couldn't be elected to dog-catcher any place.

Only one thing I got left to worry about now. They're going to send someone down from the north to talk to us about health and hookworms. If I don't get that stopped pretty fast we'll have to give up hookworm control here. Just one peep out of one of those do-gooders and it's all off.

The Far Eastern and Russian language school of The University of California at Berkeley now offers Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Russian languages in 12 week sessions throughout the year.

Schools consolidation in Illinois has been proceeding rapidly within the past four years. Five thousand school districts have been eliminated by reorganization.

On Our Research the Answers Hinge

By DOUGLAS E. SCATES

THERE are times when it seems desirable to examine those basic ideas which give large direction and purpose to our work, to consider the factors which shape our role as research workers in our civilization. What are our opportunities? What are our obligations? Toward what ends shall we carry on our research?

We stand now at a time of significant decision, when the course of mankind for some time to come will be patterned by the way in which we resolve the conflicting forces of the present.

It is at any rate a time for careful thought, for finding our course among circumstances which are in significant ways new. We would probably agree with the writer who asserts that "Modern Western man is not so confident. Standing uncertain of his place in history, he does not know where he and his world are going."[1] Long standing signposts become strange as a new culture grows up around them. With a new culture come new perspectives. "Mankind is now in one of its rare moods of shifting its outlook. The mere compulsion of tradition has lost its force."[2] In a rapidly shifting world scene man gropes for guides which are adequate to the present, which command intellectual respect, and which stimulate constructive action.

SCIENCE HAS HELPED—AND HURT

The factors which have led up to the present critical period are largely those which have been connected with the development of physical science. These factors have operated in two ways. On the one hand they have produced physical machines which greatly alter the relations of man to his fellow man and to the physical world. On the other hand, they have produced a sophistication about the world and about man himself which leaves in a greatly disturbed and confused state those schemes of thought on which man has in the past relied as bases for his major decisions.

There is little need to argue the impact of modern physical science on society. Our consciousness is still stunned by the development of concentrated power in the last war. Less disturbing, but no less significant, are the recent gains made in transportation and communication, for these markedly change the basic factors of space and time in man's world. A notably increased standard of living has been made possible through physical and biological research. And we enjoy an astonishingly increased length of life which various sciences and their applications have brought to the average man within our generation. These and other great developments change our ways of living.

WILL SCIENCE MASTER MAN?

But what do these new powers mean to mankind? Will they be employed for his welfare and advancement, or for his torment and destruction? A historian expressed a common thought when he wrote: "I firmly believe that before many centuries more, science will be the master of man. The engines he will have invented will be beyond his strength to control. Some day science may have the existence of mankind in its power, and the human race commit suicide by blowing up the world."[3] Although this statement was written eighty-five years ago, current events do not belie the fearsome prediction. We have the recent dictum of Robert M. Hutchins that the research of another fifty years will enable to start a chain reaction which will destroy the whole world. We live in an age of increasingly fantastic reality. Our problem increasingly becomes that of knowing what to do with the knowledge we have.

These new powers—these new means of free-

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[1] *Life* 22: 69; March 3, 1947.
[2] Alfred North Whitehead. *Adventures of Ideas*, p. 125. New York: Macmillan Co., 1933.

* Adapted from inaugural address as president of the American Educational Research Association, Atlantic City, March 3, 1947.
[3] Henry Adams. Quoted in: Charles I. Glicksberg, "Henry Adams and the Repudiation of Science." *Scientific Monthly* 64: 64; January 1947.

dom or of disaster—which science has laid at our feet would be perplexing enough if we were otherwise undisturbed. For the incorporation of a new power or freedom into the total behavior pattern of an individual or of a society is accompanied by hazards, trial and error, and the slow development of essential new controls and balances. How to use a greatly increased power would be a large question for any one new gain taken singly, and even in a period of stability and general confidence.

The Profanation of Values

But these scientific novelties do not come upon us in a state of full philosophic health. During several hundred years the ideologies of science have cumulatively unsettled the older frameworks of thought. Again and again man's self-respect has been seriously jolted by the contentions of physical and biological scientists. The age of Copernicus and Galileo not only shifted man from the center of the universe to an unimportant position in the heavens but it lured man's attention away from speculative teleology and human values to mere mechanical aspects of existence. The nineteenth century added biological evidence to the further undermining of cherished conceptions, and the twentieth century has carried forward the process of magnifying operational science and minimizing, relatively, the significance and importance of the individual. What is more devastating to the concept of human worth than the atomic bomb!

In desperation we think of turning back. Such a notion is but a flight of fancy, more wish than thought, for we know that we cannot. The thinking of the adult is not the thinking of the child; and much as the grown man may crave the irresponsibility of the young he cannot with impunity assume it. Our society has attained intellectual stature and cannot by choice renounce it. The onus of power is not easily relieved. Intelligence shames to face less less problems than those which move man onward. Our only course is courageously forward.

But forward by what means? How shall we recover and revitalize our basic orientation? From what source can we obtain wisdom for the use of our new physical and biological powers? Where shall we turn for strength and guidance in our social endeavor? The answer is, to the same means which have carried us to startling levels of insight and power where they have been applied, namely, the methods of science.

One may exclaim, "What, more science? It is our present undoing!" The reply must be, "Yes, always more science; but not always the same kind of science." Social problems are sharpened rather than reduced by non-social science. But the methods of science are not constrained to the classical fields in which they have most assiduously been employed. They are applicable wherever questions arise. The methods of science are the methods of man accumulating and purging his insights; they are the methods of untrammeled intelligence at work on problems. They are the methods of final resort when the trust *must* be found. They have given amazing success where used. I commend them on their record; but I commend them for *our* problems.

The Secrets of Man's Nature

It is our present weakness that we live with high sophistication in physical affairs and with venerable tradition in other affairs. We are sure that our traditions are mainly good; we do not know how good. We recognize that the basic systems of thought supporting our personal and social orientations are largely without benefit of science: physical and biological science have repeatedly shaken them and no adequate social science has yet appeared to sustain or refine them. With all knowledge impinging on all other knowledge, those convictions which are without scientific support are at a disadvantage and fail to function even at their true worth. Our unequal progress is a source of the greatest danger for it gives us unprecedented power and leaves us less certain than ever what to do with it. It is now imperative that we utilize methods of science on a large scale to explore the secrets of man's nature, where alone we can find those key understandings by which to control the physical knowledge we already have.

"Are we not all now at work applying scientific methods to these problems?" I trust so. Yet we may be applying them somewhat sparingly. Certainly we employ research to solve our problems; but we tend to be circumspect in picking our problems. We make sure that they are suited to our methods. And we have commonly thought of research methods as an intellectually trim set of procedures, rather than thinking of them as embracing the widest

possible range of the operation of intelligence seeking to produce demonstrable, in contrast to personally preferred, truth. By virtue of thinking so narrowly and mechanically of scientific method we have failed to approach many central problems in man's psychological and social existence. Our course must be to view as fully and broadly as possible man's needs, in all aspects of his living, and then struggle to produce methods which will be commensurate with these problems.

What Knowledge Does Man Need?

With what should an adequate science of man be concerned? What knowledge does man need? I think we can obtain our cues from fields already well developed. With respect to physical things our problems fall, in the large, in two classes—those of producing machine, and those of utilizing the machines. Purely social problems are, in the large, of the same two sorts.[4] In both the physical and social settings we are concerned with force, either physical or psychological. One large problem area is the marshalling and directing of this force toward given ends; the other large problem area is the determining of these ends. The first is a process which, for convenience, and without thought of prejudice to its complexities and delicacies, we may call the building of social machines. The second is a process of ascertaining and distilling values. We dare not minimize the hazards and difficulties in developing the basic principles of either area, but neither dare we disregard our responsibilities in them. If these be social problems, these be the general objectives of social research.

Research workers in education are well acquainted with problems in the first of these classes. In our studies of school organization, the school district, the means of support, the principles and processes of administration, and even the teaching act itself, we are dealing with the production and improvement of social machinery. In so doing, we have found many subproblems and many by-products. We have had to develop means of detection and means of measuring for numerous aspects of our work. We have had to develop new concepts, hypotheses, principles, and theories as our work has progressed. We have needed to be sensitive to varied criteria, such as cost, adequacy, efficiency, democracy, and other significant elements in our American culture. Thus while shaping our research tools and suggesting improvements in the operating machine itself, we have contributed to the fabric of science concerning the structure of human relations.

We are not unfamiliar with the second class of problems, that of purposes and goals. The needs of our own field recurrently drive us back to core questions. For what ends shall we educate? What are the goals of mankind? What things pay? What loyalties should we seek to develop? In what direction is our society moving? What are the basic desires of mankind? In what cultures may they find realization? What are the minimum essentials of a psychologically healthy society? How shall we define the good life? These and kindred questions come to the fore in our daily work. They are questions on which innumerable decisions depend. For when man knows the direction in which he wishes to move, the use to which he will put his machines, both physical and social, becomes clear. These are central questions which we have the responsibility for helping to solve—through research.[5]

We may have been led to believe that basic questions belong essentially and naturally to another discipline, known as philosophy, and that research would be venturing unwelcomedly into a foreign domain when attempting to deal with them. But sound philosophy has no quarrel with fact; it does not seek to arrive at truth without benefit of observation. "The philosophy of education neither originates nor settles ends," states Dewey. It "not only draws its original material as to ends and value from actual experience in education, but it goes back to these experiences for testing."[6] And again: "Science . . . is the supreme means of the valid determination of all valuations in all aspects of human and social life."[7] On the level of critical interpretation and synthesis, pholosophical can be of great service to us; on the level of obtaining carefully gathered significant obser-

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[4] Douglas E. Scates. "The Parallel Roles of Physical and Social Science." *Scientific Monthly* 64: 14-20; January 1947.

[5] For similar convictions, in the field of Sociology, and corroborative arguments, see:
Howard E. Jensen. "Science and Human Values." Scientific Monthly 53: 258-66; September 1941.
Howard E. Jensen. "Sociology and Fundamental Values." *Social Science* 19: 5-12; January 1944.

[6] John Dewey. *The Sources of a Science of Education*, p. 56, 58-59. New York: Horace Liveright, 1929.

[7] John Dewey. *Theory of Valuation*, p. 66. International Encyclopedia of Unified Science, Vol. 2, No. 4. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939.
Dewey has many times in many places asserted his faith in the empirical approach to values.

vations, we can be of great service to philosophy. We will do well at all times to keep close company with philosophy—at least with that philosophy which keeps close company with us. We do not care to overlook the opportunity for mutual benefit through the cooperation of two large approaches to the guidance of man.

I realize that man is inclined to view with some reluctance the notion of a science "governing" himself. Science seems to be mechanical. It seems to be deterministic. It seems to lose the individual. It conflicts with premises currently held. It does not fit. Yet there are obviously many things true about mankind, and by that very token a science is germane. I believe that it is not science but a limited view of science which is distasteful. Always we think of physical science and its concepts. I am aware that biology and biochemistry through the past hundred years have made of man a mere assemblage of physical properties. Scientific psychology has given us something of an integration of these properties. But I do not think this is the end. I believe we can have a science which leaves of man a human being—perhaps not as we have always thought him, but at least as we have always known him. For science is a matter of concepts as much as of objects, and a properly conceived social science will be sensitive to those qualities which we recognize as human. A science which is good is necessarily a science which fits.

Research Has a Part to Play

I would not imply that our own number, working alone, is equal to the full task. But we, working together with all those everywhere who are endeavoring to clarify the problems of man, bear the onus and the opportunity of producing the basic materials and the well-knit principles, on which practical answers depend; out of which value judgments emerge; and from which philosophers, administrators, and all of us as citizens can obtain a clearer perspective on the course which man and his society should pursue. Progress is necessarily slow. But we can trust that just as a methodological approach involving observation-thinking-testing, in a continuous and endless round, has wrested unexpected secrets from the physical and biological world, so man's intelligence relentlessly at work observing, comparing, and verifying in the field of human living will also place in man's hands undreamed of understanding concerning himself and his relations.

The present period, according to Whitehead, is critical. "There is now no choice before us: either we must succeed in providing a rational coordination of impulses and thoughts, or for centuries civilization will sink into a mere welter of minor excitements. We must produce a great age, or see the collapse of the upward striving of our race."[8] At such a time in history, when insight into human nature and long range vision are so fundamental, all who may be engaged in research touching any phase of human nature play a vital role. For, in order to clarify his goals and in order to achieve his goals, man must depend on human science. In a world accustomed to the authority of science nothing less than scientific rigor will suffice; and in an age expecting the marvels of science, nothing less than the methods of science will avail. The achievement of man's ultimate destiny can be realized only by building a full-scale science of man. We must not conceive of our task in smaller terms.

Open the Doors to College

President Truman's Commission on Higher Education . . . reports that almost one-half of the nation's youth have the mental capacity to profit by two years of study above the high school level. Almost one-third of the nation's youth have the capacity to complete a college education. . . . Many are prohibited study because of economic, racial, or religious restrictions.

The nation should be made aware of this untapped resource. How can Phi Delta Kappa promote this theme?—*Stanley J. Drazek, in the Beta Epsilon News Letter, February, 1948.*

"A recent survey shows that in 65 cases out of 100, reason for lack of community good will toward the schools is the human element." That is the way *School-Community Relations,* 1947 Yearbook of the New Jersey Secondary Teachers Association, begins. It emphasizes that good public relations begin in the classroom. (80 pages of suggestions, 50c; order from Lester D. Beers, 1035 Kenyon Avenue, Plainfield, New Jersey.)

[8] Alfred North Whitehead. "On Foresight." In: Wallace Brett Donham. *Business Adrift,* p. xxix. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1931.

Workers' Educational Association in Britain

By ERNEST GREEN

THE Workers' Educational Association was founded in Britain in 1903. The movements which gave it its early impetus were the Cooperative and Trade Union Movements. The growth of the Cooperative Movement and the Trade Union Movements in the latter part of the 19th century convinced their more intelligent leaders that they needed the kind of educational facilities which would enable them to fulfill the new tasks which they had undertaken and a background of knowledge which would help them to face with greater confidence their growing social responsibilities.

Their first appeal was to Britain's universities. Here was a storehouse of knowledge and a cultural heritage to which the worker had been denied access. If the worker could not go to the university, could not the university come to him? Oxford, Cambridge, and later London Universities responded to the appeal and from 1869 a movement known as the University Extension movement commenced, the object of which was to carry the influence and culture of the university far beyond its own walls. Lectures were offered which were intended to be scholarly but popular. Unfortunately they were in the main far too academic for the backwardly educated worker and while many of the more intelligent artisans owed a great deal to this movement, the ultimate development was a lecture service attracting mainly middle-class people who had received better educational opportunities. Nevertheless it was from this experiment that the workers eventually solved their problem. They recognized that the universities could meet their needs if they could be made to understand what those needs were. They could not be met by the universities imposing ideas and lecturers upon the workers, but they could be met if the workers themselves were treated as equal partners and through their own representatives cooperated with the universities in making known the wishes of the workers. That today is the foundation of the most important Adult Education work in Britain, joint committees consisting of equal representatives of the University and the Workers' Educational Association. Each side has its own Secretary and the two act as Joint Secretaries to the Committee. It was called by the founder of the W. E. A. (Dr. A. Mansbridge), "the bridge between Labor and Learning."

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The universities were to gain a great deal, by taking advantage of the wide experience of people in constant contact with working class life, and the workers were to profit from the knowledge and culture of the university. That is actually what has happened. The workers and the university lecturers have educated each other. The workers wanted lecturers of their own choice—that is a fundamental principle. They wanted the type of lecture who would stand up to discussion, and they wanted him to have a personal knowledge of the class and every member of it. The classes were to be small tutorial classes of not more than 24 students—and they were to be organized on a three years' basis, every student undertaking to pledge himself to the full course. In the year before World War II there were over 1,000 tutorial classes and preparatory tutorial classes with 14,384 students. At the end of the 1947 session there were 1,456 classes with 23,056 students.

Aim and Purpose

That then is the basis on which the W. E. A. was founded. Its main purposes is to assist its students to educate themselves for social responsibility and to provide them with a background of knowledge which will make them more active and effective in the organizations of which they are members. Thus the W. E. A. does not concern itself with professional or technical training. Education for a living is important but it is not the job of a voluntary movement. The task of the W. E. A. is to teach men and women how to live a full life and give them the essential background for making their contribution to social progress.

It is not a vehicle for propaganda. On the contrary, it is both non-party in politics and non-sectarian in religion. But it is an instrument for open enquiry and free discussion. Its claim is that controversial issues must be and should be faced, but they should be faced objectively. In short, the W. E. A. does not exist to teach its students what to think but how to think and how to form independent judgment. It claims that the strength of one's convictions does not lie in the volubility with which they are proclaimed, but in the valid reasons which can be advanced for holding them.

After securing university cooperation the W. E. A. had to face the financial problems involved. and here its claim was directed to the Ministry of Education and the Local Education Authorities. It convinced both the ministry and the local education authorities that the education of the adult was an essential contribution to an effective democracy and that while the adult may be justifiably suspicious of education in controversial subjects directly provided by the state, the universities with their tradition of freedom, and a voluntary movement like the W. E. A., controlled by the students themselves could provide the facilities, if the State and the L. E. A.s were willing to recognize the teaching costs while allowing complete freedom of teaching and discussion. This principle was accepted and led to the unique tripartite cooperation which exists between the Ministry of Education, the universities, and the W. E. A.—the Ministry meeting three-quarters of the cost of teaching and the L. E. A.s paying the difference. The W. E. A. is a federation of 2,787 affiliated bodies and individual members and raises most of its finance for administration and organization from these sources.

Apart from its cooperation with the universities, the W. E. A. itself organizes and provides classes which are recognized by the Ministry of Education. In the last session the classes organized and provided by the W. E. A. as distinct from university tutorial classes numbered nearly 4,000, and the total number of students in all types of classes over 100,000.

W. E. A. Classes are intended to be introductory courses to the more advanced tutorial classes. They may consist of courses ranging from 12 meetings to one-year classes of 24 meetings.

As might be expected, student interest centers round subjects which are closely related to their political, economic or cultural contacts and to the national or world events which are most urgent at the time they join a class. Thus, international problems—European history and American history have been most popular recently as studies of wider aspect, while social security and reconstruction have covered the narrower field.

A summary of the range of interests, with the percentage of attraction during last session was: Sociological, 63.2 per cent; Literature and Appreciation of Music and Drama, 27.78 per cent; General Sciences, 6.94 per cent; miscellaneous interests accounting for the balance.

The range of activities is not confined to provision of classes. Thousands of students attend one-day and week-end schools organized by W. E. A. Districts and branches and 12 to 14 summer schools lasting from two to six weeks are arranged each year. There are over 900 branches of the W. E. A. These are the organizing units in every center where they exist. They arrange the classes, providing a program of public lectures, educational exhibitions and conferences to stimulate public opinion to the need for education.

The W. E. A. does not confine its interest to the education of the adult but has been working for over 40 years for a program of general educational reform for full equality of educational opportunity. Two years before the passing of the Education Act of 1944 the W. E. A. organized hundreds of conferences and public meetings and sent deputations to the Minister of Education to advocate its plan for educational reconstruction, much of which is now embodied in the new Education Act.

Education in the Forces

Adult Education in H. M. Forces is now an important function in general service training. Much of the credit for this is due to the W. E. A. which took the initiative in establishing the machinery by means of which education in H. M. Forces was provided during World War II. The W. E. A. also organized the original scheme for postal study courses in H. M. Forces which is now an established feature of Service education. Thousands of correspondence courses are now provided every year, some of them through Ruskin College, Oxford, which is associated with the W. E. A. In

(Continued on Page 132)

Why Two Hundred Chose Teaching

By ELLIS FORD HARTFORD

THE present day concern of our educational leadership about the inadequate supply of capable candidates for the teaching profession is well founded. It is obvious that the unprecedented need for capable youth in the various fields of teaching, particularly at the elementary level, has not been viewed as *opportunity* by many students who should enter the profession. Reasons underlying the lack of interest on the part of potentially good candidates present one imperative for study by educators. Conversely, the basic reasons for the choice of teaching by education students should also be the subject of study by educators who are concerned with problems of teacher selection and recruitment.

The latter aspect of this problem may be approached by considering the reasons for choice of teaching which are expressed by undergraduate students in teacher education institutions. Effective effort to interest capable youth in the teaching profession depends, in part, upon clear understanding of the reasons which appeal to the kind of young people which we need and desire to have enter the field. One opportunity to discover something of these reasons may be found in the introduction-to-education course usually offered in our teacher education programs. The writer's own experience indicates that time devoted to some clarification and expression of good and sufficient reasons for choosing teaching is time well spent in terms of morale and personal satisfaction of the students. Enthusiastic well-informed students in our teacher education classes can do much to spread the point of view toward teaching which will materially aid in the attraction of better candidates for the profession.

In this connection the following report of the reasons for choosing teaching by two hundred and seven undergraduates who had successfully completed the introductory course in education at the University of Kentucky may be of interest. The information has been collected over a period of two years from six classes during as many quarters of work. The total membership of the classes numbered 103 men and 104 women students of which approximately 70 per cent were juniors and the remainder were sophomores. Reasons averaged five, the range three to eleven. Originally, the list numbered fifty-three items but the number was reduced to forty-nine by consolidation of duplicating statements and obviously identical reasons.

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The most frequently mentioned response, "Teaching is important work," was designated by 106—more than half of the students. Second and third places went to: "Interest in and liking for children" (92), and "Teaching is interesting work" (86). Fourth and fifth choices were: "Teaching offers great personal satisfactions" (80) and "Teaching offers opportunity for advancement now" (75). Interestingly enough, such matters as "teacher pay," "security," and "status" ranked as seventh, eighth and eleventh, with totals of (70), (64), and (48) respectively. That traditional termite of the teaching profession, "Teaching is a good stepping-stone occupation" ranked forty-sixth, with a total of only (3).

The complete list follows:

Rank	*Reason designated*	*Frequency*
1.	Teaching is important work	106
2.	Interest in and liking for children	92
3.	Teaching is interesting work	86
4.	Teaching offers great personal satisfactions	80
5.	Teaching offers opportunity for advancement now	75
6.	Teaching keeps you learning and growing	71
7.	Teacher pay is adequate or improving	70
8.	Teaching offers relative security	64
9.	Teaching is an opportunity to help others	50
10.	Teaching affords much leisure time	49
11.	Teaching offers favored status and respect	48
12.	Teaching offers opportunity to serve democracy	45
13.	I enjoy working with people	43
14.	Conditions affecting teaching are favorable	36
15.	I like the subject I will teach	31
16.	Teachers associate with fine interesting people	24

17. Teachers can help to meet so many needs 24
18. Teaching gives a sense of personal worth 23
19. Teachers have great influence upon people .. 22
20. Teachers are needed so badly at this time 22
21. Teaching offers a stimulating environment 21
22. I liked teaching from a brief experience 20
23. Teaching is my chance to help improve conditions 19
24. Teaching is creative work 15
25. Teaching can be as satisfying as one makes it .. 12
26. The influence of good teachers upon me 11
27. Teaching offers opportunity to travel 10
28. Teaching will enable me to follow up my interests 10
29. Teaching will improve my personality and sense of humor 9
30. Teachers are well-rounded interesting people.. 9
31. I have always liked school 9
32. Teachers train other professional workers .. 8
33. Teaching gives opportunity for outside activities 8
34. Professional standards are improving 8
35. Previous experiences with children convince me 7
36. Teachers work with healthy normal people .. 6
37. Teachers work with much freedom 6
38. I am best fitted for teaching 6
39. Teaching is opportunity for effective leadership 6
40. I have always wanted to teach 5
41. I enjoy extra curricular activities 4
42. Teaching should be fun 4
43. I want to teach physical education and/or coach 4
44. Teaching offers a good beginning salary 3
45. Teaching offers varied opportunities 3
46. Teaching is a good stepping stone occupation 3
47. Preparation for teaching involves less time and money than do other professions 3
48. Teaching is easy work (physically) 2
49. Teaching is my second choice (after coaching) 1

Even casual inspection may suggest several items which might be considered as duplications or so clearly related as to permit further consolidation. Too, it may be suggested that certain items appear as generalities which mean little to the reader. Finally, it must be admitted that little can be drawn in the way of conclusions from so small a sample as has been presented. What the list does suggest is that an introductory course in education for undergraduate can be the means of making more explicit good and sufficient reasons for entering teaching, thereby contributing to good morale and positive attitudes. Such a function might well become a recognized aim of the introductory course in education in our teacher education institutions.

Motive Aids Learning

Workers want to reach the standards of production set for them, and are likely to quit if they cannot do so, President Alfred J. Marrow of the Harwood Manufacturing Corporation, Marion, Virginia, told the National Vocational Guidance Association in Chicago. The report of the researches of his company have implications of success and failure in the classroom.

Compare, for example, what happens when a student is required to repeat a course, with his company's experience on workers who were asked to change jobs. It was found that a change in jobs is complicated by the resistance of the worker. The average learning period for beginners for the simplest type job in the plant is about five weeks, the relearning curve for an experienced worker on the same job is 8 weeks. . . . The fact that relearning after transfer to a new job is so often slower than initial learning on first entering the factory, would indicate on the face of it, that the resistance to change and the slow learning is primarily a motivational problem.

As for the workers failing to meet standards, not a single one of 116 operators who were rating above standard production had quit during the preceding month, whereas 28 out of the 211 who rated below the standards had quit during that same period. The research followed a hypothesis by Kurt Lewin that high labor turnover might be a symtom of a feeling of failure by the worker rather than a result of the stereotyped excuses that were offered in the terminal interview. . . . In not a single case of exit interview in the company's history up to that time had any worker mentioned a feeling of failure to meet production quotas as a cause for quitting. . . .

It was found that the strength of the workers' desires to reach the goal increases as the distance to the goal decreases, and the difficulty of improving production increases as the distance to the goal decreases. . . .

The rate of turnover increases as the learner approaches the experienced level of 60 units per hour and decreases sharply once the success feeling of exceeding 60 units per hour is attained. The monthly turnover at 30 units per hour (about half of the minimum skilled level), is 1 per cent, at 45 units per hour it rises to 5 per cent and at 55 units per hour (almost equal to a skilled level) it rises to 8

Toward Reality

By ROSEWELL G. LOWREY

★ *Rosewell G. Lowrey is Dean of Men, Mississippi Southern College, Hattiesburg, Mississippi. He is a member of Phi Delta Kappa.*

SCIENCE is the effort to discover reality by observation and measurement. It concerns itself only with things that can be measured or that scientists hope can be measured. E. L. Thorndike once said that everything that exists exists in some quantity and can be measured.[1]

Intelligence may be defined as the capacity to manipulate environment or to adjust to environment for purpose. When effort is made to measure intelligence, tests are applied to this capacity.

Let us define God (defining the Infinite) as the Intelligence (if It exists) that is the first Cause of our world, without of course denying that He may have other attributes.

This definition brings us back to Thorndike's statement that if a thing cannot be measured it is not real. Though the statement may be scientifically inaccurate, there is pragmatic justification for it.

If I am confined to a room whose walls I cannot penetrate, realities outside the room have no significance for me unless they affect conditions in the room. If they do affect conditions in the room, I should be able to observe and perhaps to measure such effect. Though the omnipotence of the scientific method has not been established, that method has been fruitful.

Science has asked how many kinds of reality there are. In the early, unrecorded days of man's observation, he probably thought there were many kinds of reality. He could see little similarity among such things as rocks, animals, leaves, air, light. They appeared to be different in essence from each other. With further observation and measurement, some organization and order began to appear. There was a class of reality called matter. This class was divided into sub-classes called elements—iron, sulphur, hydrogen, and the like. The atoms of these elements were indestructible, and each type of atom was unique; but they were all alike in possessing mass, a characteristic which was then believed to distinguish matter. Another class of reality was called energy. It, too, was divided into sub-classes, such as light, heat, the energy of motion. Even very early observation showed that one type of energy could be converted into another type.

Matter and energy existed in a frame of time and space. Any demonstrable inter-action between them affected the position of matter in time-space. Matter, or its characteristic quality, mass, was measurable. Time, space, and energy were also measurable at least as they related to matter. It was usually assumed that if spirit existed, it existed in the time-space frame. This was the period of nineteenth century materialism.

Science is by definition concerned with measurement. To time, space, matter, and energy, it readily ascribed reality because it readily measured them. But spirit was a different problem. Since the difficulty of applying measurement to spirit was very great, most scientists found that the most comfortable way of dealing with it was to deny its existence. It became quite popular to deny its existence and unpopular and "unscientific" to speak as if it might exist. Furthermore, Jesus of Nazareth, an authoritative religious teacher, had said that God is a spirit. So God did not exist.

Since the materialistic days of the nineteenth century, refinements in methods of observing and measuring have further reduced the number of kinds of reality. We have observed that the elements can be converted into one another and that matter and energy can be converted into one another. They are two aspects of the same thing. Students of science now generally believe that there is only one kind of reality.

The evidence that energy and matter are not distinguishable by the presence or absence of mass may be significant. The difference between them seems to be like the difference between energy and spiritual power. Energy is known because of its effect on matter. It has been measured by measuring its effect on matter. Those who believe in spiritual power claim that it also can affect the state or position of matter. This effect is indirect, utilizing

[1] National Society for the Study of Education, "The Measurement of Educational Products," Yearbook XVII, Part II, p. 16.

energy from some other source. The records of alleged observation of spiritual power bear out the assumption that its function is to control and direct energy as energy controls and directs matter.

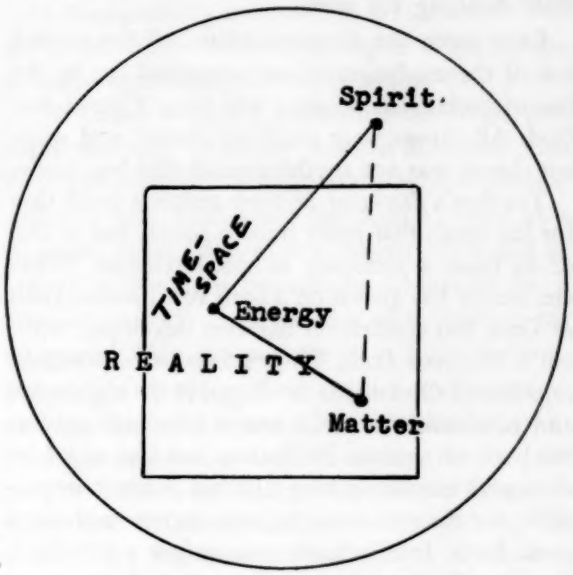
A locomotive moving through a switch yard represents a closed system of matter-energy in a time-space frame. The locomotive has no choice of path. The track it rolls over is determined by a chooser outside the closed system. The energy that goes into the system, regardless of choice of track, equals the energy that comes out. A scientist whose power to observe is limited to the closed system would find no energy going into the choosing of a track and no increase or loss of energy in the system as a result of choice. The direction and amount of energy utilization, however, would be controlled by an intelligence operating outside the system.

We need a more accurate definition of spirit if we are to try to find out whether it exists. We must have some criterion by which we can distinguish it from matter and energy. A characteristic of matter and energy is that they are subject to the law of time and space. Physics deals with their relationship in and to this time-space frame. The word *spirit* has usually been used to refer to any value or reality that is superior to this frame. The statement that God is a spirit means that God is superior to the law of time and space. When Jesus said, "Before Abraham was I am," he was asserting that he, too, was a spirit.

But spiritual powers that cannot affect time-space-matter-energy mean little to me, for time, space, matter, and energy are important realities in my world. The existence of spirit must be proved in the same way that the existence of energy is proved—by its effect on matter. Jesus invited this test when he told Nicodemas that spirit was like the wind, which could not be seen and whose origin Nicodemas could not account for, though its effect was visible.

Let us set up a hypothesis that will bring spirit into the area of scientific investigation. We may think of spirit as one of three foci of reality. A map of reality may look like this:

Time and space constitute a four dimensional frame within which matter and energy are bound. They interact with each other and they can be transformed the one into the other. But the quantity of them remains invariable within the time-space frame. We conclude they cannot escape from time and space. Spirit, however, existing within the circle of reality but outside the time-space frame, exerts on them an influence which directs their behavior without itself being transformed



into either matter or energy. If it can be so transformed, the law of conservation of matter-energy must be modified.

Our question now assumes this form. Is there a spiritual power that directs the behavior of energy, as energy directs the behavior of matter? If this power exists, does it show intelligence and purpose in a vast design involving the total time-space frame? Is intelligence a spiritual power, superior to time and space, capable of controlling energy?

In the last three hundred years scientific thought has come almost a complete circle. Three hundred years ago scientists accepted the idea of God as a superior intelligence working through nature and above nature. The evolutionary hypothesis, the second law of thermodynamics, and the law of probability dethroned Him. None of these was incompatible with the idea of God, but they seemed incompatible with human beliefs that were related to the idea of God in the mass mind. The second law of thermodynamics, for instance, has a pessimistic sound. It would seem to indicate that the law of nature is the law of death. All energy-potential runs down hill toward a dead level, when our frozen planet will drift aimless through a star-

less night. Man becomes, not the highest work of God, but an excrescence on the face of nature. If Carnot and Clausius saw no such correlaries in their law, Robinson Jeffers did. And if such was the situation of man, questions about God lost their meaning for man.

Later came the demonstration that the second law of thermodynamics was accounted for by the law of probability. Chance was king. Chance was God. All things were made by chance, and without chance was not anything made that was made.

Toynbee's *Study of History* makes a good case for the thesis that every human society has as one of its bases a generally accepted religion. Western society has grown on a basis of Christian faith in God. No civilization has ever developed without a religious faith. The materialistic—scientific rejection of God which developed in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries was a blow not only at the basis of western civilization but also at a fundamental human craving that has made it impossible for man to build a great society without a great faith. Intellectually man might reject God. Emotionally he was incapable of such rejection. Two new faiths have appeared to fill the void. One of them is a faith in science—that science will perform miracles, solve all problems, and find or become an adequate substitute for religion. The other is communism, which denies God but refuses to accept the consequent conclusions concerning man. In order to escape these conclusions, the communists have invented a Something with the power and the purpose to bring about a universal communist state. It is omnipotent; the result is inevitable. But let no one call it God.

In the western world, the scientific dogma has had more followers than the communist dogma. By the end of the nineteenth century the worship of entropy and probability had so widely replaced the worship of God that when evidence began to accumulate that chance and entropy were not the sole arbiters of events, a new name—anti chance—had to be invented for God. It still satisfies those who think that naming a phenomenon explains it. However, increasing numbers of scientists find a purposeful Intelligence the only satisfactory explanation. They have not agreed on their description of this Intelligence, or on the methods by which they have found Him.

A. S. Eddington has found reality not in matter and energy, but in what might be called the mind of God. C. J. Keyser has sought God through logical reasoning and has found him as a great overlaw, superior to the laws of nature and of logic. Sir James Jeans has seen Him as a great mathematician. His thoughts are the principles of mathematics, which are final reality. Gilbert N. Lewis cannot account for the complexity and variety of animal life by the law of chance alone. He thinks that life moves up-stream, against the Carnot-Clausius law and against chance. He says that when four aces are always dealt in the same hand, something other than chance is operating.

LeComte du Noüy, in his *Human Destiny,* has found proof of God in evolution and change. Evolution can be accounted for only by a goal to be attained. A purposeful Power drives toward this goal, selecting among the laws of nature for His purpose. Our scale of observation distorts the human view. Changes too slow for human observation, stretching over millions of years, are perhaps instantaneous to God, who sees all time, all space, and all reality at a single glance. Adaptation, mutation, natural selection, survival of the fittest are merely mechanisms. Certain of their products have been utilized in the direct line of evolution, but the divine purpose is not bound by them. These mechanisms are not in themselves progressive. They do not constitute either the origin or the sufficient cause of evolution. Many changes chosen for the evolutionary process did not confer an immediate advantage; they were chosen because they were necessary steps toward a later, superior stage. "Everything always takes place as if a goal had to be attained, and as if this goal was the real reason."[2]

The is a similarity between du Noüy's conclusions from a study of evolution and Toynbee's from a study of history.[3] Both see the process as moving from the external and mechanical to the internal and spiritual. Both identify such movement as progress. Both see the process unfolding toward higher spiritual goals.

The development of non-Euclidian geometries and the later discovery of their objective, practical application is evidence that Intelligence controls reality. We are told that the mass and the charge of electrons do not reside in the center of

[2] *Human Destiny,* p. 74.
[3] Arnold J. Tornbee, *Christianity, and Civilization.*

the electron but have infinite extension. Thus the apparent contact of electrons seemingly separated by empty space is explained. An electron acts only where it is, but it seems to be everywhere. Every particle of matter behaves as if it were aware of the location, mass, and movement of every other particle. Possibly there is a spiritual continuum that pervades all reality. Such a situation would seem to harmonize the theory of relativity with the quantum theory. The continuum is there, but it is of such nature that it cannot be caught and contained within time-space.

The relationship of brain to intelligence now requires consideration. It is not man's physical differences from the other animals that makes him man. It is his abstract ideas and his power to make moral and spiritual, rather than animal choices. Man's larger brain is admittedly the basis for these ideas and choices. But our hypothesis postulates intelligence independent of physical basis, and electro-chemical phenomena are not necessarily the whole explanation. High levels of intelligence exist in easily observable quantity not observably associated with large aggregations of nerve tissue.

We do not have to go outside the human body itself for an interesting illustration. Some years ago I sent for my physician because I had fever, a headache, and no appetite. He said that I was suffering from an acute infection. He put me to bed and directed certain routines that were primarily intended to keep me quiet and reasonably well satisfied. Then he began to hunt for the source of the infection. My body, at levels below those of which I was aware, was working on the same problem. While the physician puzzled, my body discovered the source of the infection, identified the invading organism, discovered the nature of the toxin it was producing, prescribed chemical formulae that would nullify the toxin and kill the organism, selected the necessary ingredients, manufactured the chemicals, transported them to where they were needed, and I got well.

My physician was an unusually intelligent and well trained man, but my body, below the level of awareness that I call me, gave more evidence of intelligence (manipulation and adjustment to achieve a difficult goal in a complex situation) than he could give.

The intelligence of the genes in a fertilized ovum—their ability to manipulate and adjust under varying environmental conditions to produce (brain and all) an unbelievably complex functioning of the adult organism—fills every student of physiology with awe. It is rare indeed that the genes make choices so wrong as to nullify the effective functioning of the organism.

Of course complex man-made machines perform complex processes without thought. But their complexity and efficiency are indisputable evidence that intelligence has been at work as a causative factor. A complex pattern developed to achieve a goal not apparently achievable by a simple pattern is evidence of a high order of intelligence. This is especially true if the developing pattern or the goal is contrary to the law of probability or the second law of thermodynamics. Intelligence demonstrated its reality, not by permitting itself to be located at a definite time and place, but by manipulating matter and energy within time and space according to a discernible pattern for a discernible purpose.

In addition to the hypothesis that human intelligence is generated by the human brain, two other hypotheses concerning the relationship between it and brain may be suggested. One of these is the old vitalistic hypothesis that intelligence residing primarily in the brain uses the brain as a recording instrument and a tool. The other is that the brain acts as a receiving set to pick up and utilize spiritual power that permeates reality. These three hypotheses are not necessarily mutually exclusive.

The relationship between life and certain ray phenomena is well established. There are numerous observations on record of "mitogenetic rays" originating in active living matter especially during growth processes. The electromagnetic rays emanating from a working brain are a familiar tool in psychology. Wave patterns vary not only with the degree of activity of the brain, but also from individual to individual.

Human intelligence usually functions within time-space limits. As a rule we do not know what is going on where we are not present. We do not know what will happen tomorrow. As a rule we cannot influence events by the power of mind alone.

Two types of events, however, have been de-

scribed that seem to indicate that human intelligence is not always so limited.

The first of these two types is a group of psychic phenomena that have been under investigation especially at Duke University. Evidence has accumulated to show that human minds can receive ideas communicated to them from a distance by other minds, that some minds can recognize patterns of cards drawn from a well-shuffled deck when no one has seen the cards, and that some minds can, without physical or sensory connection with the shuffling and dealing, influence the order in which cards fall. These phenomena occur in patterns and frequencies not explainable by chance. The conclusion of the investigating scientists is that human intelligence is superior to time-space.

A second type of events that indicates that man sometimes possesses spiritual intelligence is called inspiration or intuition. I shall give only two of many possible instances of its recognition in the field of science. A Cornelius Benjamin speaks of flashes of scientific insight like revelations from God.[4] He lists Archimedes in his bath and specific gravity; Newton, the apple, and the law of gravity; Watts, the kettle, and the steam engine, and Helmholtz's description of his own methods of discovery. Hans Reichenbach speaks of Einstein's observations concerning the equivalence of gravitation and acceleration as follows: "From the standpoint of logic one cannot speak here of an inference, for this far reaching assumption cannot be logically demonstrated by means of the scantily available facts. . . . There seems to exist something like an instinct for the hidden intentions of nature; and whoever possesses this instinct takes the spade to the right place where gold is hidden."[5] No hypothesis that limits itself to time-space-matter-energy has yet been advanced to account for these intuitions or inspirations.

Intuitions and inspirations in the field of religion have usually been called revelations. It is hardly consistent to concede them in science and to deny them in religion. Prophets and priests may occasionally have known as did Archimedes and Newton and Einstein how to take the spade to the spot where gold is hidden.

No claim is made that science has demonstrated or will demonstrate the existence of God. It is claimed, however, that Christianity is supported by the present position of science and by the history of scientific thought. Science seems to confirm that the Word might have become flesh. It is believed that further scientific investigation will increase the support that science offers to the hypothesis that the spiritual exists as a power able to control and use the material.

[4] An Introduction to the Philosophy of Science, pp. 176-177.
[5] *From Copernicus to Einstein*, p. 94.

Workers Educational Association

(Continued from Page 125)

this case the interests of men and women in the Forces follow the same trend of other W. E. A. work.

Before World War II the W. E. A. was developing close cooperation with other countries and organizing joint Summer Schools in Sweden, Denmark, Norway and Switzerland. Even during the war it organized, in 1944, an Anglo-Czech Summer School in Wales. This work has very much extended and during 1947 the following Summer Schools have been organized:

Anglo-Scandinavian—Pulborough, Sussex.
Anglo-Swiss—I. L. O. Geneva.
Anglo-French—Serves.
Anglo-Czechoslovak—Jevany, Prague.
Anglo-Austrian—Surbiton, Surrey.
Anglo-Hungarian—London.

In these schools British W. E. A. students have studied and discussed vital problems of common interest with W. E. A. students from the other countries mentioned and to encourage this development, the W. E. A. has formed an International W. E. A. on which is represented at present Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Finland, Holland, Belgium, France, Czechoslovakia, Poland and Britain, with observers from Austria, Germany and Hungary.

No veto is necessary in this organization. It is a united nations organization, bringing together organizations who have mutual interests and recognizing that the essential need in these critical years is the education of the adult, for there is little hope for the next generation unless the present guardian can be inspired with a greater sense of social responsibility.

Counseling Persons in Industry

By WILLIAM S. SADLER, JR.

COUNSELING is one of the techniques of practical problem solving. The person who is seeking counsel occupies an interior position with respect to the problem in question. The counselor occupies an exterior position. This is the fundamental asset which the counselor possesses: The problem is not the counselor's personal problem, therefore he can approach it from an impersonal perspective. The client, the individual with a problem, sees the "insideness" of the problem. The counselor is able to visualize the "outsideness" of the problem.

Almost everyone acts as a counselor to someone at sometime or another. Such counsel and advice may vary in worth from a casual opinion to a very carefully considered judgment. But in most cases such advice—even when casual—has the merit of portraying the problem from an exterior perspective.

Skillful counseling differs from casual counseling in accordance with the time and effort spent in problem solving, the judgment and experience of the counselor, and his ability to encompass the problem and all that pertains thereto. It is assumed that proper time and effort are devoted to each problem and it is recognized that judgment and experience are products of actual practice. Our attention may well be focused, therefore, on the ways and means of encompassing the problem.

Counseling problems may, of course, be encountered in a wide variety of fields. Here we examine the industrial field. In this field the function of the personnel counselor finds expression in two main directions:

1. Counseling industrial management as to the best way to develop and otherwise utilize available manpower.

2. Counseling the individual in industry as to the best way to develop and otherwise utilize his available capacities and natural talents.

The scope of this discussion is a consideration of what must be done to impart effective and practical and workable counsel to the individual in industry.

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Let us again look at the assets and the skills which the counselor has at his command in attempting to solve the problems of the individual in industry. These include the following:

1. An objective and exterior view of a problem.
2. Seasoned experience and judgment.
3. Sufficient time to deal with the problem.
4. Certain techniques for quickly encompassing the problem.

The techniques for encompassing a problem are really the tools of the skilled counselor. We should examine these tools with some care. Their effective use greatly shortens the amount of time required for problem solving. And, since time is measured in terms of money, the saving of time is a rather important item in dealing with any industrial problem.

I. The Tools of Counseling

The skillful use of the tools of counseling is not only a time saver to both counselor and client, it is something more. These tools are not only essential to efficient work, their use also results in effective counsel—practical problem solving. Among the important tools of the counselor are the following:

1. An understanding of the organization of the company.

2. An understanding of the differential of job requirements.

3. An understanding of the job knowledge and status of the man.

4. An adequate test battery to evaluate the individual.

1. *An understanding of the organization of the company.* It is assumed that the industrial coun-

* This article is from an address to the Twelfth Annual Conference on Guidance and Personnel Work, sponsored by the School of Education, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois, July 22, 1948.

selor is in possession of a basic understanding of the major divisions into which a given company may be organized. An understanding of corporate organization is fundamental to an intelligent approach to industrial counseling. Of course, almost everyone recognizes the usual division of corporate activities—manufacturing, sales, administrative, research, and personnel. Not so clearly recognized, however, is the difference in manner in which these divisions will operate in a large company as compared to a small company.

Large companies and small companies differ, not only in their mores, but also in the degree of specialization which may attach to any given job. By and large, a greater measure of versatility is required in the smaller corporation as compared with the larger corporation. In the larger company, there appears to be a greater degree of critical interdependence of functioning units; in the smaller company, there seems to be a greater measure of more general and less specialized function.

These are important considerations and they have a direct bearing on counseling persons in industry because the characteristics of the individual are sometimes better adapted to a small organization and are sometimes more suited to a large organization.

An understanding of the corporate organization also entails some degree of comprehension as to the flow of individuals through the organization structure—from the lower levels to the higher and more responsible positions. A clear recognition of the possibilities for promotion should be a part of a counselor's approach to the problem of any given individual in industry.

For example: A position without direct promotional possibilities—a so-called "dead end job"—can be a very desirable position for a person with a rather stable temperament and with a somewhat limited performance capacity. On the other hand, this same job would be a kind of vocational prison to a person with high-level potentialities. One man is assured by the very routine of repetitive work; the other is irked beyond measure by this same routine.

2. *An understanding of the differential of job requirements.* Most industrial jobs differ in greater or lesser degree concerning the specific job knowledge required to do the job. These differences are obvious and may be recognized in passing. What is more important, and what is sometimes confusing to the industrial counselor, are the more subtle differences between seemingly similar positions. Consider the following examples:

Line foremen in direct supervision of production workers would appear to hold comparable positions. And in most cases they do. The responsibilities of most line foremen in a plant differ in degree rather than in kind. But this is not altogether true when a line production foreman is compared with a foreman in charge of a tool and die department. The better line production foremen are usually high in what Sheldon would call endomorphy and mesomorphy. The foreman in charge of a group of tool and die makers may be an out and out ectomorph. Stated otherwise: The average effective foreman is something of an extravert and is "people conscious." The foreman of a die department may be distinctly on the introvert order and may be highly "problem conscious" but not highly "person conscious." The latter foreman is operating as a highly skilled technician among a group of other skilled technicians and he can command supervisory respect by being the best technician in the group. Certain types of men are promotable to foremanship responsibilities in departments calling for skilled performance and these same men would fail as supervisors in other production departments.

As a second example, consider two sales representatives. One is dealing with a complex product requiring a high level of differential of response on his part in making a sales presentation. Obviously, a thorough grounding in product knowledge plus a reasonable level of mental adaptability are among the prerequisites for success on this job. The other sales representative is engaged in the sale of a rather simple product. He can succeed on his job with a relatively low level of mental adaptability.

Again taking another example from the sales field: Does the position require the ability to close a sale? or, is the job one of maintaining established customer relationships? The two jobs call for different types of individuals; one, a more aggressive and dominant type and the other, a more service minded and (perhaps) less competitive type.

To cite a fourth illustration: Working conditions in the average foundry are such that men of

high capabilities tend to prefer employment in more pleasant surroundings. This being the case, it is often necessary to make the best use of rather mediocre talents in evaluating supervisors in a foundry.

A fifth example could be drawn from the administrative division of business: Two individuals may each carry the job title of "cost accountant." One of these men may have extensive contacts with various supervisors in the manufacturing operation; the other man may have little contact with individuals outside of the accounting department. To be successful, one of these individuals obviously requires certain characteristics of temperament which could be absent from the make up of the other man.

A sixth example might consider a staff position in the manufacturing division: Two men may be working in a standards department with similar job titles. One of these men may be acting for the most part in a detail capacity. The other man may be spending most of his time out in the factory making time studies of specific production jobs. It is quite apparent that the latter man will need certain qualities of salesmanship in order to get along smoothly with hourly workers and union shop stewards. Success on his job requires certain personal characteristics which his clerical associate does not necessarily need.

A final example could well consider the degree of coordinating activities required on a job. Consider two factory superintendents: The first superintendent has reporting to him six departmental foremen and one personal assistant. The second superintendent has reporting to him five service department foremen and four general foremen each of whom is in charge of three or more foremen. Both of these superintendents carry the same job title. But the second one needs much more in the way of coordinating ability and organizing ability than does the first.

Other illustrations could be given, but these seven examples should serve to clarify what is meant by the statement, "An understanding of the differential of job requirements." A clear recognition of the differences between jobs carrying similar titles is one of the most valuable assets of the counselor.

3. *An understanding of the job-knowledge and status of the man.* Through contacts with management the counselor is in position to determine the status of the individual within the organization and to evaluate his present duties and responsibilities in anticipation of the test measurements of the probable capabilities of the man. The counselor should also make every effort to become acquainted with the experimental background of the individual employee—what is his job-knowledge.

It has been our experience that job-knowledge serves as a very acceptable substitute for high mental adaptability in those positions which are semi-routine or cyclic. For this reason, an adequate grasp of the individual's job-knowledge is of real value to the counselor in estimating the performance-potential of the man in relation to a specific position in the organization.

4. *An adequate test battery to evaluate the individual.* It is the collective and considered opinion of the group with which the writer is associated that the evaluation of an individual by psychometric methods is by far the quickest way to become acquainted with him. An adequate test battery, in our opinion, should provide reasonably reliable answers to the following questions:

a. Is the individual a normal or an abnormal personality?

b. What incentives appeal most? What are the goals in life?

c. What talents and abilities appear to be present?

d. How will the person function? What kind of a person is he?

It has been our experience that reliable information can be obtained from a test battery that can be administered in six to eight hours. A longer test battery would be desirable in certain cases but the average business concern is resistant to the idea of consuming more than one day of the employee's time in taking the tests.

Of the four points enumerated above, the evaluation of how the individual will function is, in our opinion, one of the most important things to be accomplished. For this reason, out of a total of sixty-odd traits measured, some forty are devoted to the area of personality and temperament. The ability to co-operate and the degree of socialization appear to be of prime importance in industrial advancement, and it is therefore felt that the counselor should pay particular attention to this aspect of the individual in industry.

Our experience indicates that the intelligent use of psychological tests has merit for the following reasons:

a. Psychological tests save hours and days of time in becoming acquainted with the individual.

b. An intelligent and experimental interpretation of test results provides a reasonably valid picture of the individual.

c. The test results provide a very satisfactory method of objectively acquainting the individual with certain facts about himself which would otherwise have to be expressed as subjective opinions of the counselor.

d. The test results present industrial management with a comprehensible picture of the individual and enable management to form intelligent comparisons as between individuals.

e. The test results provide the counselor with material assistance in eliminating the bias from his own appraisals of the individual and of the problems of the individual.

II. The Attitude of the Counselor

The attitude of the individual in industry plays a rather important part in the success or the failure of that individual. It is felt that the attitude of the counselor in industry likewise plays a rather important part in the success or the failure of the counseling technique.

Attitudes themselves are intangible but they produce very tangible results. It is the opinion of our group that, among those attitudes that are desirable in an industrial counselor, the following four are of reasonably basic importance:

1. A fundamental liking for human beings.
2. A sincere desire to be of service to individuals.
3. Willingness to accept responsibility for imparted counsel.
4. Respect for the feelings and opinions of the client.

Something should be said about each of these four points, if for no other reason than to clarify meaning.

1. *A fundamental liking for human beings.* A counselor who does not really like people should, himself, seek counsel. It would appear that he is in the wrong vocation. People are a counselor's business and if he does not like them he is going to experience difficulty in avoiding antagonisms in dealing with them. Of course, if the counselor is a good actor, he may be able to conceal his dislike and function acceptably in spite of it. But if the counselor has a reasonable measure of sincere liking for the individual with whom he is talking that very liking tends to engender a greater measure of mutuality of confidence as between the two persons. Trustful confidence is the most desirable atmosphere in which a counselor could ask to work.

2. *A sincere desire to be of service to individuals.* In evaluating the problems of individuals in industry, some attention should be paid to happiness as well as to success. While vocational success is the "good" reason for imparting counsel, sometimes the "real" reason is the unhappiness of the individual. And this unhappiness may arise from causes quite apart from the job. Nevertheless, a state of mind bordering on unhappiness can have a distinct effect on the performance potential of the individual on the job.

It is, accordingly, our opinion that the impartation of practical counsel to the individual should embrace a reasonable survey of the total situation in which the individual finds himself. At least, the counselor should ever be on the alert to uncover factors making for unhappiness which lie somewhat remote from the job itself.

3. *Willingness to accept responsibility for imparted counsel.*

In stating this factor as a third important component of a desirable attitude on the part of a counselor, the writer is well aware that he is face-to-face with the debatable question of directive versus non-directive counseling techniques. In our opinoin, the most practical argument supporting the directive technique of counseling is just this: *Industry will not pay for the time required in non-directive counseling.*

This argument would not necessarily be valid if directive counseling proved to be ineffective. A logical position might be taken that no counseling is better than poor counseling. Or, an alternate position might be taken that industrial counselors should devise ways and means to convince industry that non-directive counsel is economically sound—worth paying for.

We share neither of these viewpoints. In our opinion, directive counseling is not only a sound procedure but a desirable one. We feel, and we

feel rather strongly, that the counselor should be competent to assume responsibility, and that the counselor should be willing to assume responsibility for the counsel which is imparted to the individual.

Does this mean that the counselor dominates the client in the impartation of counsel? It does not. It rather means that counselor and client both function as active participants in the counseling situation. Both are concerned with the success of the venture. Both should function in an active way. Neither ought function in a passive manner.

It is our opinion that, in a counseling situation, the counselor is in possession of superior information concerning the total problem of the client. Again, the counselor possesses the inestimable advantage of viewing the problem from an exterior position in contrast to the individual's interior view of his own problem.

Perhaps this can be stated otherwise as follows: The client is intensively aware of his own problem; the counselor enjoys a more extensive comprehension of the problem. Both have much to contribute to the success of the solution of the problem. And both should function actively if the problem is to be successfully solved within an economically reasonable length of time.

In functioning as an active participant in this relationship, the counselor will naturally draw forth from the client opinions, expressions of feeling, estimations of the problem, and will otherwise provide for the fullest expression on the part of the client within an economically reasonable length of time.

A rather careful distinction should be made between *directive* and *dominative* counseling. As we view it, dominative counseling would tend rather completely to subordinate the feelings and opinions of the client to the judgments and recommendations of the counselor. Directive counseling, on the other hand, involves a temporary partnership relation of counselor and client in which both make significant and individual contributions to the solution of the problem at hand.

4. *Respect for the feelings and opinions of the client.* In presenting this attitude as a fourth important factor in the over-all attitude of a counselor, we are, perhaps, calling unnecessary attention to the obvious. Nevertheless, something should be said on this point. This respect for the feelings and opinions of the client represents the superimposition of humility on the other three desirable attitudes of the counselor. It is a natural outgrowth of the counselor's awareness of his own limitations and imperfectations.

Carried to its logical extreme, this attitude of humility leads directly to the adoption of non-directive counseling techniques. Where this attitude of humility is absent, the counselor may well fall into a pattern of dominative counseling techniques.

In our work in industry we have attempted to avoid dominative counsel quite as much as we have attempted to avoid non-directive counsel. We feel that the former involves an unwarranted assumption of responsibility and that the latter involves an unwarranted avoidance of responsibility.

III. The Act of Counseling

When a counselor is dealing solely with an individual—as in the impartation of vocational guidance counsel—the relationship is as between two parties, counselor and counselee. In an industrial situation, there is a three-way relationship—counselor, counselee, and management. The introduction of this third factor into the counseling relationship may at times complicate it and at other times simplify it—all depending on the attitude of industrial management. In any event, the industrial counselor has been retained by management and his prime responsibility is to management. His conclusions and recommendations concerning any individual employee must be acceptable to management. This does not, however, prevent the counselor from functioning in a persuasive manner in dealing with industrial management as concerns the presentation of his conclusions relating to any given employee. In handling this situation, the industrial counselor needs to exercise a nice discrimination concerning his obligations to management and his obligations to the individual employee. The final conclusions and recommendations of the counselor should, in our opinion, provide for the greatest personal benefit to the individual employee consistent with the overriding welfare of the company as a whole.

While it is difficult to serve two masters, our experience in industry indicates that it is not often that the real good of the employee is inconsistent with the real welfare of the corporation. Sometimes such differences do exist, but usually it is

possible to work out solutions which are fair to both the individual and to the industrial group.

In discharging our dual responsibility to the individual and to management, we find that we are following a procedure that involves five general steps:

1. Analysis of the situation
2. Tentative synthesis of conclusions
3. First discussions with management
4. One or more interviews with the individual
5. Final discussions with management

It may prove helpful to examine briefly what takes place in each of these steps.

1. *Analysis of the situation.* In this step the counselor acquaints himself with the organization structure of the company and with the potentialities for advancement or transfer that may be given to a given employee. Job differentials are studied together with the job knowledge and status of the individual. The corporate management is the primary source of information concerning these matters. Lastly, the individual employee is given a reasonably comprehensive battery of tests designed to disclose his over-all stability, his general goals in life, his capacity for performance, and the manner in which he is likely to conduct himself. Unless the counselor is confronted with a rather unusual problem, these steps should provide him with a satisfactorily accurate analysis of the situation.

2. *Tentative synthesis of conclusions.* Having completed the analytical survey of the industrial situation and of the individual, the counselor must now synthesize his conclusions in the light of all known facts and in accordance with his dual responsibility to the individual employee and to the corporate management. There is simply no place for a passive (or non-directive) attitude at this point. However tentative these synthesized conclusions may be, they must also be positive and affirmative.

3. *First discussions with management.* Before presenting the tentative conclusions to the individual employee, it is the better part of discretion to review them with a representative of management. If the counselor has done a good job of analyzing the situation and of synthesizing his conclusions, this first discussion with management may be a rather perfunctory matter. On the other hand, if the counselor has been in error, this discussion will serve to enlighten him as to those points where his conclusions deviate from the established policies and present intentions of management. In any event, this first discussion with management insures that the counsel that is to be imparted to the individual employee will be realistic and workable.

4. *One or more interviews with the individual concerned.* This fourth step is, of course, the crucial one. Now must the counselor summon all of the artistry of presentation at his command in an effort to portray to the individual a true and realistic picture of the man in relation to the job in particular and to life in general.

We find it helpful to begin by drawing the individual out in conversation, starting out on some neutral subject and gradually directing the conversation around, first to the company and then to the test results. After these ease-promoting proliminaries, most interviews really begin with a consideration of the specific test results.

In presenting test results to the individual, we make every effort to avoid the impression of passing judgment. Care is exercised to avoid arousing the prejudices of the individual and to keep his mind open and his decision fluid pending the presentation of the full picture.

In the course of presenting the test results, the counselor is in position to draw out the individual and to determine a good deal concerning his attitudes and opinions. All during this process of the give and take of ideas, the counselor himself is in process of resynthesizing his tentative conclusions in the light of the responses of the counselee. This process of the resynthesis of conclusions is rather difficult to describe, but it is an artistic rather than a scientific process; it involves a lively exercise of the creative imagination coupled with a ready flow of verbalized ideas. All during this process the counselor is maintaining a state of mind in which he is ever ready to compromise means to attain desirable ends and to modify the minor phases of imparted counsel in the interests of the major objectives of client benefit.

To a counselor who really likes his work, these moments are probably the most thrilling and challenging of the entire industrial experience. These are moments during which the counselor is challenged to exercise to the fullest his scope of comprehension, creative imagination, knowledge of

industry, insight into human nature, and capacity to synthesize all known facts and attitudes into a meaningful, practical, and acceptable body of conclusions and recommendations. During these times the counselor is often called upon to deal with suspicion, to cope with disbelieving attitudes, to overcome human stubbornness, to deflate false pride, to redirectionize ambition in the light of probable abilities, to augment self-respect when it is deficient and to restrain conceit when it is present, to point out unrecognized avenues for self-expression and achievement, to function as an honest broker in bettering strained interpersonal relationships, to enhance the individual's degree of socialization, to uncover hidden talents without creating undue ego-inflation, to assist the individual in bettering his techniques for dealing with his fellow men, to infuse greater purpose into the lives of those who are drifting—all of these problems and more are encountered sooner or later by a counselor to persons in industry. Even the broad problem of human happiness comes up for consideration.

The objective of the interview or interviews with the individual employee is to identify the problems of the individual and to develop solutions to those problems which are first, acceptable to him, second, consistent with the test and interview findings, third, consistent with management's policies and intent, and, finally, realistic in relation to the over-all status of the individual.

We doubt that a counselor ever achieves all of these objectives in dealing with any one individual. Nevertheless, they remain as desirable and ideal objectives.

5. *Final discussion with management.* The counselor's final act in imparting counsel to the person in industry is to confer a second time with corporate management concerning the individual. The purpose of this discussion is to acquaint management with the conclusions and recommendations as they have finally taken shape in the counselor's mind and to insure the co-operation of management in furthering the best interests of the individual is the service of the corporation. Subsequently, these conclusions and recommendations are reduced to a formal report for the confidential files of the company.

IV. Common Problems Encountered in Industrial Counseling

Thus far, this discussion has given consideration to the tools at the command of the counselor, to the attitude of the counselor, and to the specific impartation of counsel. At this point the question is logically raised: What are the problems that are commonly encountered in counseling persons in industry? Perhaps the best way to illustrate these problems is to cite case histories:

1. *Vocational misplacement.* Mr. "A," age 28, high school graduate, single. Was employed as driver of material handling tractor in a manufacturing plant prior to military service. Spent five years in the army with discharge as first sergeant. Subject returned to old job following discharge although he did not like it. He was contemplating termination when he was tested as a part of a general talent search in the factory. Test results, confirmed by interview, indicated a high-level desire for service-contact activities with people and a good potential for personnel work. The personnel department in that organization was looking for such a man; the subject was transferred accordingly and has been functioning in a satisfactory manner for the last three years.

2. *Educational deprivations.* Mr. "B," age 37, high school graduate, married with four children. Subject is manager of the parts and service department of a Cadillac agency in Ohio. Test results indicate an introverted type of personality, a high-level engineering aptitude, and considerable probable potential for creative design in the mechanical field. Subject graduated from high school during the depression of the 1930's and financial pressure denied him the engineering education that he longed for. Present job offers little outlet for engineering aptitude as subject is functioning in a supervisory capacity. Supervisory responsibilities are a heavy burden to his introverted nature. He likes and feels at ease with mechanical problems but seems to have difficulty in dealing with people. Solution: Subject embarked upon an intensive study of people and (with the aid of his wife) set about improving his social skills. A work shop was established in the basement to provide an avocational outlet for otherwise-frustrated engineering aptitudes.

3. *Overloaded capacities.* Mr. "C," age 51, two years of high school, widower with two adult chil-

dren. Subject was superintendent of one of four major production divisions in a manufacturing plant. He had been employed continuously by the same company for 27 years. At the time of interview, the subject was at loggerheads with his immediate superiors and was beginning to be a real liability to the manufacturing operation. The test results disclosed insufficient mental adaptability together with insufficiencies in other measured talents to permit the subject to co-ordinate the activities of subordinates in his manufacturing division. These findings confirmed management's problems in dealing with the subject but were not presented factually to the subject in interview—only by indirection. The solution to this problem involved the transfer of the subject to a staff position on the works manager's staff. In this position the subject had no responsibility for the coordination of the activities of other people but his long manufacturing experience was still available in a consultive sense. It required 18 months for the subject to become reconciled to the transfer but he has since been functioning in a satisfactory manner for nearly three years.

4. *Underloaded capacities.* Mr. "D," age 34, high school graduate, married, three children. Subject has been employed for about ten years by the company in the capacity of an hourly worker on an assembly line and had been functioning as a union steward for three years at the time he was tested in connection with a search for talent in the plant. As a union steward, the subject had given management considerable trouble and the works manager was somewhat loath to include him among those to be considered for promotion. The test results indicated that the subject possessed a level of general intelligence considerably above that of his foreman, and, for that matter, of most of the foremen in the plant. The tentative conclusion was that the subject was frustrated in self-expression by his less intelligent foreman. Management concurred in this finding (with some reluctance) and the interview confirmed it. The solution to this problem involved the transfer of the subject to the industrial engineering department of the plant where he was placed in an assistantship capacity. It required over a year for the subject to begin to get over his former union bias against the management of the company. During the last eighteen months he has been functioning in a satisfactory manner.

5. *Confusion of values.* Mr. "E," age 30, college graduate, unmarried. Subject had been employed for over two years as a staff assistant in the administrative division of the company's home office. Test results indicated an unusually high-level performance capacity. The subject's job performance was quite in line with the test results, but he had recently been giving his superiors increasing trouble because of what appeared to be a growing tendency to be critical. The test results confirmed this by a clear indication of a self-centered and critical outlook on life. The interview confirmed the tentative conclusion that the subject was strongly idealistic with an attitude that was beginning to verge on egoism. The solution of this problem required an untangling of the subject's confusion of values. The subject was helped to differentiate between ideals and ideas. He was taught to regard ideals as little children that have not grown up yet. He was taught to love his ideals but to have no faith in them until they had matured into ideas—validated and realistic plans for practical action. This required four interviews to accomplish. The subject still has ideals and he is still working to achieve the expression of these ideals but he now realizes that the achievement of his ideals is inseparable from the passing of time and the maturation of his own judgment. He has lost none of his ideals—only the illusions that were formerly associated with them.

6. *Abnormal personalities.* Mr. "F," age 38, engineering graduate, unmarried. The subject was tested for a client organization as an applicant for a staff position of key importance in the engineering division of the company. The test results disclosed marked indications of abnormality. The tentative conclusion was that the subject was in a manic overdrive. With the co-operation of the client's organization the subject was referred to psychiatric counsel and responded favorably to electro-shock therapy. (This is an interesting case to place on record as it is not generally recognized that the manic overdrive responds to electric shock treatment just as does the depressive state.)

7. *Single-purpose talents.* Mr. "G," age 45, grammar school graduate, married, two children. The subject had an excellent work-record for all but the last two of 26 years of employment. For 24

years he had worked in one production department, starting out as a stock chaser and working successively on up as apprentice, journeyman, master printer, acting supervisor, and foreman of the department. Two years ago, based on his excellent performance as foreman of his department, the subject was promoted to the position as general foreman in charge of four production departments. His performance for two years as general foreman was very unsatisfactory. Test results disclosed a very limited adaptability to new and unfamiliar situations. With the co-operation of management, this problem was solved in the following way: The Foreman of the subject's old department was transferred to another position. The vacancy in the supervision of the subject's old department was presented to him as an emergency and he willingly returned to his old job on a temporary basis. There was no change in title or compensation and no indication of ego deflation on the part of the subject. In this case the temporary assignment will be allowed to become permanent.

8. *Lack of social adjustment.* Mr. "H," age 48, one year of college, married, no children. Subject was regional sales representative for a nationally advertised and well established product. He had been a marginal producer for the last 8 out of 15 years of service with the company. The test results indicated a deficiency in poise, tact, and cordiality. Management concurred in the test findings. In this case, despite three interviews, the counselor was unable to convince the subject of his deficiencies. The subject's general attitude was that psychological tests were on a par with side-show entertainment in a carnival. This problem was fortuitously resolved when the subject's wife read the report of test findings and the improvement program which had been prepared for him. The subject's wife and two of his friends of long standing succeeded where the counselor had failed—they convinced the subject of the need for radical self-improvement. As a result, the subject entered a Dale Carnegie course and completed it with distinction. His changed attitudes and improved social skills have since been reflected in his improved sales performance for the past two years.

We have encountered so many cases of deficient social adjustment that something more should be said on this point.

Among the persons encountered in industry, nearly four out of five are deficient in their social adjustment, in their capacities for skillful co-operation with other individuals. This lack may be due to sheer blindness (where other individuals are concerned) or it may be due to faulty techniques in the handling of working associates. Again, in another instance, the difficulty may be due to timidity and sometimes it is caused by overcompensation of feelings of inferiority.

Whatever the cause of faulty social adjustment, we invariably make an effort to help the individual to correct this deficiency. Sometimes a good deal of tact is required to state the problem to the person. But we feel that it is worth while to expend real effort in the solution of this problem. We feel that this matter of socialization is very closely related to human happiness, just as closely related to human happiness as it is related to human efficiency.

V. The Problem of Human Happiness

The problem of human happiness differs from other problems encountered in industry only by its ubiquity. Of course, the counselor can sidestep this problem by the simple declaration that it lies outside his proper province of function. But does it? The success and the efficiency of the individual are the legitimate objectives of the counselor. Neither of these is attainable in the highest sense if the individual is really unhappy. Human happiness does appear to be a factor in success; certainly it is true that unhappiness is a factor in efficiency.

Broadly considered, our times do not appear to be particularly happy times. We may be at least sure that we are living in an unsettled period and that it probably has unsettling effects on all of us. The writer has given much thought to the problem of happiness and would like to offer certain ideas for consideration:

Among those general influences which may be presently contributing to human unhappiness, the following appear to have considerable importance:

1. There has been a very great acceleration of the rate of change in civilization which is apparently unprecedented in world history.

2. There appears to be a corresponding breaking down of the established mores of society as long established institutions lose the rigidity of unchanging custom under the cyclonic impact of accelerated change.

3. There seems to be a growing secularization of

Western Civilization with a corresponding emphasis on power rather than principle, on expediency rather than virtue.

4. These influences result in a feeling of drift and loss of anchorage on the part of the individual human being as the institutions of society become fluid and as super-self goals are increasingly displaced by self-goals with resulting increase of the tensions of antagonism.

Special influences in industry are:

1. Loss of the worker's pride of achievement due to specialization of individual function. The industrial engineer has atomized the old general function of the master craftsman into a multitude of repetitive operations.

2. This has been carried still farther as the worker's residual skills have been increasingly taken away from him and built into the machine so that the former skilled worker becomes merely a machine tender.

3. This stereotyping of function inevitably diminishes the opportunity for self-expression on the job and confronts the worker with the frustration of monotony in his daily life.

4. These influences also operate on the supervisory level where the proliferating of staff functions has made increasing inroads on the old general function of the line supervisor.

For these reasons, we feel that the problem of human happiness is one that should be seriously considered by the counselor in industry. There is an especial need for happiness in our times.

It is our belief that the industrial counselor will, sooner or later, come to the realization that much self-realization on the part of the worker will have to be achieved outside of the industrial situation —away from the job. This means that careful attention must be paid to avocational opportunities for self-expression.

In our work of counseling persons in industry, we have often found it helpful to present the approach to the problem of human happiness in a series of reasonable steps. We start out with the premise that happiness has as its moral prerequisites, sincerity plus decisions in the face of problems. We further feel that happiness is inseparable from effort although we are well aware of the fact that work does not necessarily result in joy. Nevertheless, we are of the opinion that happiness is impossible to achieve without sincere effort.

Given these reasonable prerequisites, we attempt to help the individual to make an intelligent and rational approach to the attainment of happiness:

1. First, he must select and reasonably define adequate goals in life.

2. Second, he must have a reasonable understanding as to the successive steps required.

3. Lastly, he must have insight as to where he is at the present time in this series of progressive steps to goal attainment.

The integration of these three factors results in purposive insight into life. The individual is living with certain basic purposes in mind and he now has insight into present status as that status is related to both past and future. The individual thus can meet the challenge of the unachieved steps ahead with that confidence which is born of the realization of past achievements toward goal attainment.

Of course, this entire approach to the problems of human happiness requires the selection of adequate goals. What are these adequate goals? It is our opinion that the average individual needs simultaneous goals of a material, emotional, intellectual, social, moral, and spiritual nature. Given such multiform goals, his personality seems more likely to become responsive to the full melody of life, instead of responding to only a few tones.

Some of these goals should be self-centered; a certain number of self-centered goals appear necessary to human self-realization. But when all goals are centered in the self, the individual becomes almost entirely self-limited in his outlook on life. Insight does appear to reasonably follow objectives. Thus may the undiluted service of self lead eventually to unmitigated selfishness.

We are accordingly of the opinion that some goals of super-self value are essential to human happiness. Such super-self goals, altruistic objectives, may be many and varied.

We would suggest a few:

1. The service of family and children.
2. Community service.
3. The service of church.
4. Altruistic social service.
5. The attempted service of God.

We have, on occasion, come to the realization that our efforts have actually augmented the observable qualities of happiness in a fellow human being. We know no greater satisfaction.

Speech Corrections in the Classroom

By ALLAN E. FORBES

IN treating the speech handicapped, we are dealing not solely with disorders or defects, but with people.

The primary concern of speech correction is the person. It is not enough to know what sort of a speech defect a person has. In addition, we should know what kind of a person has a speech defect. The speech defect has no particular meaning apart from the person who presents the defect. We are not interested in speech defects but in speech defectives."[1]

With this idea in mind, we must realize that when we discover a defective in the classroom, it is necessary for us to know his complete background or case history in order to determine whether he is really a defective or not. This is the point where the teacher must be able to apply a knowledge of child phychology. In a great many of the supposedly defectives in speech the teacher will find that the speech defect is merely a result of some psychological maladjustment. If this be the case, treatment may rid the child of his maladjustment.

Put yourself in the position of the teacher of a class of some thirty-five students. It is your job to discover the speech defectives in this class and to attempt to correct their defects whenever possible. How will you recognize them? What criteria will you use? There is no absolute line of demarcation between normal and defective speech. Judgment rests largely upon an acoustic basis. The teacher, then, must be able to hear these defects in speech, as the class goes through the daily lessons. West, Kennedy, and Carr say,

"The speech of a given patient may be regarded as defective when any one of the following appear:

1. It is unintelligible, inaudible, or confusing to the auditor.
2. It is unpleasant to hear or is accompanied by unpleasant extraneous sounds or by movements unpleasant to behold.
3. It draws attention to itself because of its conspicuousness.
4. Its production is labored and difficult or it lacks smoothness of rhythm.
5. It is inappropriate to the age level of the patient in type, amount, rate, or degree of development."

When we know what the speech defects are, it is our job to re-educate as possible. Many of the students who lisp or stammer, or in whom some other disorder is manifest, are not really speech defectives, but have a temporary psychological disorder or disturbance. The ordinary classroom teacher, with the assistance of the school guidance officer in some instances, can do a great deal to help these people. There will still be cases that demand the attention of a specialist in the field of speech correction or psychology, but it is the classroom teacher's responsibility to weed out all the cases from his class that show some evidences of defective speech no matter how insignificant that defect may appear to be. If some type of maladjustment is at the root of this defect, the removal of that psychological disturbance often automatically removes the speech defect. The classroom teacher, who is continually in contact with children, has an excellent opportunity to detect the basis for these disturbances.

I believe that each student detected to be the victim of a speech defect should be given a type of examination or case history test. This information along with the suggestions of the special correctionist will give the teacher much of the necessary material in order to diagnose the source of the child's speech defect. When the teacher has obtained the information available by the use of these case histories and through personal contact with the student, he is in a position to judge whether or not the child has a real speech defect or whether it is merely the result of a psychological maladjustment. If he comes to the conclusion that the child definitely has some form of a speech defect, then he should notify the speech correctionist in order to obtain further instructions. If the correctionist

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[1] Van Ryper, C., *Speech Correction*, Prentice Hall, Inc., New York, 1946, p. 62.

prescribes treatment for the child, it is the classroom teacher's responsibility to assist the correctionist in every way possible.

Suppose that the teacher finds that the child is suffering from a minor psychological maladjustment which he can treat, then what is his procedure? How can the classroom teacher remove this maladjustment?

First, he must know something about the symptoms of maladjustment. The unadjusted or maladjusted individual instead of attacking his problems in an objective manner, resorts to a great variety of subterfuges, tricks, and blinds for concealing his failures and shortcomings. The numerous response mechanisms that unadjusted persons adopt for solving their problems are probably only different behavior patterns for disguising their feelings and for finding security and satisfaction in deceptive compromises. All of them can be classed as defense mechanisms which the individual consciously or unconsciously adopts to hide, avoid, or overcome his real or imagined deficiencies. These methods often appear successful for they enable the individual to get by temporarily. They may enable him to attain his immediate goals, although the immediate outcomes often mean disappointment and failure. In the end these deceptive mechanisms may generate a host of mental conflicts and difficulties which may lead to further mental distortions.

Research Is the Frontier

"Thanks mainly to the work done on university campuses, man has it in his power, for the first time in recorded history, to relegate to a position of secondary importance the problems of physical want," President Howard L. Bevis told Ohio State University freshmen. He described university men and women as "frontiersmen of the future." "Behind this vast new frontier of science and discovery lie possibilities of physical plenty, far greater than those engendered by the discovery of continents and the exploration of their hidden valleys." Of his hopes for his institution, he said that along with the mission of teaching what is already known must go "the concurrent mission of exploring the unknown and making its contribution to the total of usable knowledge." Scientific research, he said, has its place with teaching as a primary mission of the university.

Is the Defect Cause or Result?

Among the more pervasive factors that are responsible for many difficulties of adjustment and personality distortions are feelings of inadequacy or inferiority. These feelings constitute one of the most prevalent forms of personality disturbance among the young as well as the old. Very often the child is made the object of continual joking because of a lisp or baby talk, or other speech defect. He realizes that he is being made fun of and consequently, stops talking except when absolutely necessary; he realizes that his speech is different from that of his playmates. When he first attends school he appears backward because he never volunteers himself in class discussion because he is afraid his speech will not be accepted as normal. This feeling of social inadequacy soon spreads to his every phase of life and he becomes a social outcast. It, therefore, is the job of the classroom teacher to discover these traits and find out what lies in back of them. The speech defect could have caused the social maladjustment as stated above, or the maladjustment could have caused the speech defect.

The discovery of these defects and their psychological counterparts is important and a teacher should not be allowed into a classroom until proved capable of detecting them, no matter how insignificant they may seem to be at the time. The speech of American youth is important, both to them and to the nation as a whole. The safeguard of this speech rests with the classroom teacher. He can greatly assist the speech of his charges or hinder it terribly through ignorance of the discovery and correction of these speech defects. In brief, as a classroom teacher—

I. Pay close attention to the speech of the children in your class.
   A. Single out all those with peculiar speech for further consultation.
   B. Use the case history and other devices to aid you in the discovery of the disorders.
II. Consult your county speech correctionist whenever possible.
III. Ascertain the activities in which the speech defective excels.
   A. Give him every opportunity to display his skill.
   B. Encourage his classmates to praise him for

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Radio Broadcasting in the Curriculum

By EDGAR G. WILL, JR.

THE increase in courses of study endeavoring to teach some phase of radio broadcasting is great. Teachers interested in the field need to direct more effort toward unification of curricular ideas and concepts of course content. At the same time directed study must be changed frequently as progress is made in broadcasting techniques and the body of printed material is slowly built up. At least five broad objectives should be realized in all radio courses.

A. Radio Should Produce Utilitarian Results for Those Vocationally-Minded

In courses such as radio speaking, continuity writing, production, and station management, stress is laid upon learning the skills of broadcasting and developing proficiency in these areas in order that the student may be vocationally fit to enter the broadcast industry. This does not mean that the school has become, or should be a trade school for radio. Rather, certain skills and understandings should be taught which may be readily adapted by the student to a professional situation in which he may later find himself.

B. Radio Should Provide Possibilities for Integration of Broad Fields of Subject Matter

Information from many fields of learning is included in radio survey courses; such courses as radio acting and dramatic writing involve study of literature and world drama, English, history, and often geography, psychology and philosophy. Radio's use in education and religion calls in outside information. Here, the teacher of radio is limited in teaching only to the depth of his own understanding and abilities. Resources from school, home, and community all may be adapted to serve in the teaching of radio in its various aspects.

C. Radio Should Contribute Culturally to the Student's Life

Social integration may be taught through acting and production classes, roundtables and radio speaking situations where social integration can and should take place.[1] Reactions in the speaking situation should, when properly handled, result in poise and self-confidence as the student approaches a social situation.

There should also be an artistic growth and appreciation of radio as a cultural medium. Radio acting, courses in radio music, and survey all give impetus to the realization of radio broadcasting as an art form, and an appreciation of this new body of literature headed by writers such as Norman Corwin, Arch Oboler, Morton Wishengrad, and many others.

Intellectual stimulation and growth should also be realized as a study of radio progresses. Through guidance, understanding should be stimulated and a discriminating attitude built in the student's mind as to what is desirable radio broadcasting and listening.

D. Radio Teaching Should Be Based on Individual Needs and Capabilities

In all radio courses, but especially those dealing with speaking, acting, and writing problems, the courses should be planned to give each individual the fullest personal growth in radio education. Smaller classes will be needed; more capable instruction from an individual psychological viewpoint will necessarily have to be developed by the teacher.

E. Evaluation Methods Should Be Provided to Study the Effectiveness of Teaching

Industry standards should be known and applied in teaching those vocationally interested in radio broadcasting. Evaluation should be in terms of those standards where the goal is professional aptitude. Traditional testing methods may be ap-

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[1] Cf., Sarett and Foster. *Basic Principles of Speech.* Houghton-Mifflin, 1946, Chapter 3.

plied in the classroom situation, with the understanding that many times radio testing must be in terms of performance, where the inherent qualities of the judge may enter into the results. For this observational evaluation the teacher must be as fully prepared and capable as possible. Often in performance tests it is well to include clinical diagnosis as well as intuitive judgment.[2] At all times the greater the variety of data brought together from many sources the higher will be the reliability of the judgment of the student's proficiency.

Followup studies of graduates should be made to determine vocational and advocational results of general teaching. With the advent of graduate study in the field of radio broadcasting, it is to be expected that more reliable testing methods may be developed and a greater range of subject matter covered in these tests.

Speech Correction

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it and to take him into their social circle.

IV. Hold a consultation with the defective's parents.
   A. Find out why the child feels as he does toward them.
   B. Are there factors in the home which contribute to his maladjustment?
   C. Encourage the parents to treat him as an equal.
   D. Encourage his speaking as much as possible in the home.

V. Give the former speech defective practice in his newly acquired acceptable speech.
   A. Use the aid of dramatics and oral reading as well.

Only in this manner can we provide future usefulness and adequate adjustment for the child with a difference in speech. Do not cast him aside; help him to correct his difficulty so that he will be able to take his rightful place in society.

"Of the one and a half million speech defects of school age children, less than 60,000 are receiving even perfunctory remedial treatment, no vocational specialization is opened to them, and little prevention is being taught. While other groups of abnormal persons are yearly receiving more of the assistance than they rightfully deserve, the speech defectives are being thwarted and neglected."[3]

[2] For further information on testing read Knower, *"What Is a Speech Test?"* Quarterly Journal of Speech, December, 1944.
[3] Backus, Ollie L., *Speech In Education*, Longmans, Green, & Co., London, 1943, p. 32.

Armed Forces Institute

Pending determination of policies relating to operation of the United States Armed Forces Institute as a joint army-navy-airforce agency, USAFI continues with headquarters at Madison 3, Wisconsin. Fourth edition of the catalog, dated 1 October 1947, lists a great variety of courses, some technical and vocational, others on elementary, secondary and college level. Branches for overseas personnel are maintained in Alaska, Antilles, Panama, Tokyo, in Europe and in the Central Pacific. Courses under USAFI sponsorship are taught group service installation, or by the individual study plan. The charge to the sailor or soldier is $2.00 for enrollment in the institute after which instruction, text material and any course comes free.

A school employee who permits hypnosis of pupils for entertainment or other purposes assumes authority not given by law, and such employee and the school district are probably liable for all consequences adverse to the pupil, rules the adviser of the California State Department of Education, as reported in *California Schools,* June, 1946, page 169.

Motive Aids Learning

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per cent. On an annual basis, the turnover figures are equivalent to 12 per cent, 60 per cent and 96 per cent respectively. Once the standard was achieved, the turnover rate dropped to 13 per cent. These findings indicate a relationship between feelings or success and failure and rate of turnover.

When the training program was changed by setting up a series of temporary sub-goals, the turnover rate dropped about 50 per cent.

Transfer these findings, if you will, to the student who is failing his work. Will he wish to continue in school?

[3] Van Ryper, C., *Speech Correction,* Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1946, p. 61.

Planning Programs About Education

By BESS GOODYKOONTZ

So you're on the Program Committee to plan meetings about education? You have to plan for the parent-teacher association, your service club, the parent study group, the women's club, your county agricultural association, or some other group that wants to know about children and schools?

Being on the Program Committee is important because, if there's a good program, people come! If they think the organization is worth while, they are ready to help with its activities.

So your Committee meets! It finds out how many programs it is responsible for. It reviews the programs of last year, and the year before. It discovers whether the president or the executive committee or the national organization has a central theme for the year. It studies the organization's current projects to see whether programs about them would be helpful: the scholarship funds; the boys' and girls' camp project; the crippled children's hospital campaign; the child guidance clinic; etc. It consults as many members as possible to see what they want. It considers what kind of a program to have: to give information about the school and community? To give opportunity for discussion of schools and children's needs? To see examples of what children do at school? To study some problem and what to do about it? To plan and carry out some service for children? All of these purposes are good.

Here are some suggestions for planning programs to serve each purpose.

Learning About the Schools

Shall there be a good speaker? Who? Where? What about?

Well, there's the superintendent. He can talk about new plans for the year, the new building program, or how organizations can help to make better schools.

The school physician can tell what the health examinations showed, how homes and schools can work together for health, or how to detect signs of communicable diseases, such as measles, chicken pox, and mumps.

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The elementary supervisor or elementary principal can discuss the new social studies program; home work—what and why; learning to read; or, do we believe in discipline?

And the physical education teacher; he can tell (and maybe show with a class demonstration) how games and sports help children and young folks to develop; how posture and poise can be developed; or, what homes can do to provide physical exercise.

The music teacher, the science teacher, the teacher of handicapped children, and many others employed at the school have valuable stories to tell.

Learning About the Community

In any community there are persons not employed in the schools, who are working on educational programs, or programs closely related to education. They may be your good speakers. For example:

The judge who handles juvenile cases can tell how delinquency begins, or what the community needs to do to prevent delinquency.

The education director at one of the churches can describe a religious education program, or plans for vacation Bible school or weekday religious education.

The librarian can tell about new books for children and for adults; how to help children use the library; or, youth libraries.

Your legislator or congressman can report on legislation affecting schools, or governmental programs which help your community.

A veteran can describe educational and recreational programs in the army or navy, or schools in some foreign country in which he was stationed.

* This article is published separately as "Planning Programs About Education," *Education Briefs*, No. 14, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington 25, D. C. 12pp.

The employment director in a store or in an industrial plant can tell how our school graduates fit into jobs, or what it takes to be a good employee and how an employer tries to help young people.

The recreation director; the boys and girls club leader; the band, orchestra, or symphony leader; the movie owner; the education director at the museum; and many others in every community are persons with things to say that are important for children's welfare.

It may take more than one dose! Some topics and problems are so big or there are so many different points of view about them, that they can be used for a whole series of meetings.

Like this, if you want a series of monthly meetings:

Do We Want Discipline For Our Children And Young People?

October: Self Discipline and Imposed Discipline: how they work, what the school tries to do about them—by the school principal.

November: The Development of Character—by the pastor or religious education leader.

January: How Club Membership Helps to Discipline Children and Youth—by a youth club leader.

February: Discipline at Home—by a parent.

March: What Our Community Does to Encourage Good Behavior—by a judge, a probation officer, or a police officer.

Or like this:

What's Going on in Schools Around the Country?

October: Nursery Schools in Public Schools—by someone who knows about nursery schools.

November: School Lunches and Nutrition Education—by someone who knows about nutrition for children.

January: Recreation as a Part of the School Program—by someone who knows how schools conduct recreation programs after school, on Saturdays, and during the summer.

February: Learning to Work—by someone who knows about industrial education, agricultural education, business education, homemaking, or industrial arts.

March: Intercultural Education—by someone who knows what schools are doing to help children understand other races and other nationalities.

Or you may wish to center attention on one of your own school needs:

What Our Schools Are Doing For Exceptional Children

October: Who Are Exceptional Children; What Are Their Needs?—by the school psychologist.

November: What Services Do Our Schools Provide for Exceptional Children?—by the Director of Special Education or the superintendent.

January: What Improvements Are Needed in Our Own Program for Exceptional Children?—by a representative of some group of the handicapped, such as the deaf, the blind, or crippled; a parent; a classroom teacher; the superintendent or a board of education member.

Here are some large topics on which a series of meetings could well be planned:

What Does Our Community Provide for Children? (In recreation, health, social services, library facilities, music, club membership, etc.)

What is Modern Education? How Does it Function? (A child-centered curriculum; pupil guidance; records, reports, and promotion; etc.)

Schools Abroad and What We Learn From Them (The New Education Act in England; Mexico's Rural Missions; Education under Military Government in Germany and Japan; Educational reconstruction in war-devastated countries, etc.)

Democracy in Home, School, and Community (The basis of democratic beliefs and practices; how children learn democracy at school; democratic living at home; democracy in community institutions and programs, etc.)

Look at All Sides

There are at least two sides to most questions. Take the question of comics.

"They're terrible," says the literature teacher.

"They get children to read," says the teacher of remedial reading.

"They don't last," says a parent.

"They're just for fun," says a high school pupil who used to read them.

Or the question of military training—

"It develops good physique," says the director of cadets.

"It idealizes war," says a parent.

"It develops citizens," says a legionnaire.

"It takes time needed for other things," says the physical education teacher.

Or the question of home work—

"There's too much," says a parent.

"There's not enough," says another.

"It isn't coordinated," says a student.

"Home work should be different from school work," says a teacher.

Give a Chance for Discussion?

Such differences of opinion make for an interesting symposium, with several speakers presenting their viewpoints. Speakers should be informative, objective, not argumentative. Ten or fifteen minutes apiece should usually be enough time for each speaker.

Then the audience gets a chance. A Chairman, or "Moderator" will be needed to keep the discussion on the subject.

Speakers should be encouraged to speak briefly —three to five minutes.

They should speak "to the point." The Chairman may have to ask just which point a speaker wants to discuss.

The discussion should not be "personal." That is, personal differences should give away to discussion of the issues. Also, accounts of personal experiences should be shortened and sharpened.

The Chairman will not want to "settle the question," but he may summarize main points, main agreements and disagreements at the end.

Sometimes the three or four persons selected to participate try to answer a question or solve a problem together in a panel discussion. Then no one makes a speech; a Chairman introduces the topic; someone starts the discussion; and someone else contributes—maybe he asks the first speaker a, question; maybe he says he has a different point of view; maybe he has an illustration. Then someone else talks, and so the discussion goes on. Maybe the Chairman calls the speakers back to the main point; maybe he asks a question of someone who hasn't spoken yet. He summarizes now and then, and after a while he invites the audience to express opinions, too. Then at the end he sums up the whole discussion.

There are Guides for Group Discussion which might help participants.

How to Lead Discussion. LeRoy C. Bowman, Associate, Child Development Institute, Teachers College, Columbia University. The Woman's Press, New York, 1934. 31 pages.

Handbook for Discussion Leaders. John J. Auer and H. L. Ewbank. Harper and Brothers, New York. 1947. 118 pages. $1.75.

Decision Through Discussion, a Manual on Discussion Leadership. The Ohio State University Discussion Service, Ohio State University, 205 Derby Hall, Columbus, Ohio. 30 pages. 25 cents.

So You Appointed a Committee, and *When a Schoolman Runs a Conference.* Educational Trend Supplement. Educator's Washington Dispatch. 527 Fifth Avenue. New York 17. 25 cents.

You'll Have to Show Me!

Words, words, and more words!! That's what some people think about speeches. Maybe everybody comes to the point sometime of saying, "Don't tell me; show me."

The schools are ready for this challenge. They like "show me" audiences.

Here are some of the things they will show: Science experiments from first grade through high school; the games and plays of children in other lands; instrumental music throughout the school; how primary children learn to read; how standardized tests are given; dramatizing an episode in history; choral reading; a meeting of the class or school council; how health examinations are given and used; stories and poems written by children; exhibits of fine and industrial arts products; problem-solving by a class in social studies; summary of class work on the early settlers of this community; activities of the different school clubs; how we use the library; how we use a motion picture; and, panel discussion by students on home-schools problems.

But you know the story of the six blind men who went to see the elephant. Each one saw just what he already knew or believed to be true. That can happen in a school demonstration, too, unless the audience is given some help. There should be a preliminary statement of the purpose of the demonstration, what to look for, points for later discussion, or a question to think about, such as: Do the children show growth in skill and understanding in the science experiments from grade to grade?

If a preliminary explanation is valuable, a final

discussion is equally so. What did the observers see? What do they think about what they saw? What else would they like to see demonstrated?

Let's Talk it Over

Eventually people want to express their own ideas. They've listened to speakers, they have heard discussions; they've attended meetings regularly. But they'd like to tell how they feel about the matter: what puzzles them about today's schools; what they think schools do best; and how they believe changes should be made.

This is important for organizations and for communities. They need thinking people. They need to know what they want for children; what they think schools should do for children.

One way to get such a discussion is to center it on a motion picture. Maybe it will be a picture made in the local schools. Someone who knows the picture well will introduce it. He will tell why and how it was made; some of the things it shows. He will raise some questions to think about as the film is shown.

Like this: As you see this picture, look for indications that children are learning to take responsibility.

Or: In this picture children are playing many arithmetic games. Do you see uses that your children have for arithmetic at home?

Or: This film shows our summer recreation program. Is it good? What does it lack? Will it help your child?

Or: This picture shows a Kentucky mountain school in which the studies don't seem to be related to the children's life problems. Do you think they should be? Should school studies and life problems be related in our school? How?

Or: This picture shows a student council at work. Will this help children learn to behave democratically?

Then after the film is shown, the real fun begins. Start right in to discuss the questions, to get all points of view. Eventually the Chairman will call a halt, will summarize agreements and disagreements; will draw out implications and suggestions for individual and group action.

There's Work to Be Done

Some groups will decide to spend their time doing something about schools. Maybe they've had good program meetings in previous years. Maybe they think they will get better program meetings if they have their speakers or discussions connected with some project.

It has worked this way. In one school a group of parents said, "Can't we help? We can each do some things pretty well." The principal and teachers said, "Swell! We can have a better school if we all work together. Let's make out a card file of all the things all of you will do to help make a better school program."

So they called a meeting to discuss the project. What kinds of contributions would be helpful? A committee was appointed to draft a letter and a quesitonnaire. Returns were summarized and reported at another meeting, and children's programs were richer by having help along many lines: Going on excursions, cooking lunch, making play equipment, making refreshments for school parties, playing certain musical instruments, using oil paints, seeing collections of slides or films made by individuals, having help in producing a play, having continuous help on stamp collecting, using a greenhouse to grow flowers for the school, remodeling and refurnishing a clubroom at the school.

In another school the parent-teacher association asked the principal to explain the system of marks and grades. After one meeting there seemed to be general agreement that parents weren't understanding what the teachers meant by A, B, C, D, etc.; that report card time made problems at home and sometimes widened the distance between home and school; that there ought to be some way for the school to report to the home and the home to report to the school that would make sense to both of them.

So a group project was born: To plan a new method of home and school reports.

In another school the home work problem was wearing everybody out. Parents couldn't get children to bed on time. Children weren't getting time to play outdoors in the evening, to practice their music lessons, or to attend Scout meetings. Teachers complained that they could not cover the year's work unless home work improved.

What to do! A meeting was called to talk it over. The teachers told what the home work should do for students and how long they thought their assignments should take. Parents told how long

children studied and what difficulties they met in doing the work at home. One difficulty was that sometimes three or four teachers assigned home work on the same night. Some basic agreements and plans seem to be needed.

Finally it was agreed that a committee of teachers would make a report at the next meeting on "kinds of lessons to be done at school and kinds appropriately done at home." A committee of parents would keep records of what children brought home to do, of how much help they requested, and how long they worked. A committee of parents and teachers would draft a statement of what makes a good day for a child at different age levels —how much sleep, how much active play, how much home and community participation, how much time for other activities.

Through a series of meetings, plans were worked out which resulted in better "round the clock" planning for boys and girls.

Plenty of other things are needed for boys and girls. Such as, a survey of the handicapped children in a community who need special educational facilities; neighborhood play groups for children too young to enter school; a school camp so that all boys and girls can have camping experience; analysis of accidents involving children, study of the traffic, fire, and other hazards in a community and a campaign to eliminate them; art experiences for children: concerts, plays, instruction in arts and crafts, etc.; the celebration of community festivals and occasions such as centennials, Corn Day, Crowning the Cotton Queen, Apple Blossom Festival, etc., so that children and adults will have fun together; a survey of the work opportunities for boys and girls on Saturday and during vacations; establishment of a child guidance clinic or provision of such services; and, organization of a community council on services for children and youth.

"A Calendar of College Activities" was day-by-day suggestions for a public relations program, fifty pages mimeographed, is available at $2.00 from the author, John H. McCoy, Occidental College, Los Angeles 41, California. It contains a special section on Alumni and Fund Work from Wade S. Miller and Samuel S. George.

The Best Defence

Preparedness is not alone a matter of adequate military force to repel aggression and to preserve our liberty. It is a matter of removing the injustices suffered in North and South alike by the American Negro to whom the Communist is whispering so insistently; it is a matter of eradicating the prejudice that stalks so arrogantly in anti-Semitism and in the religious intolerance that demands freedom for itself but denies it to others; it is a matter of understanding and acting upon the fact that the desire for abundant living is now buttressed by the belief that it is only ignorance and selfishness that stand between the common man and such use of the productive machine as will produce all that is necessary, useful, or beautiful, and distribute such productivity so as to make possible for all the physical base for the spiritual life. . . .

American democracy cannot endure unless the institutions within the democratic community are themselves democratic. There is a fundamental contradiction between a political life organized on democratic principle and an economic life organized on undemocratic principle. The right of the individual to participate in determining the political policy of the community in which he lives is accepted. The right to participate in determining policy in the shop in which he works or in the church in which he worships has not been fully accepted, but the latter right is part and parcel of democracy. . . .

We must pursue policies that really mean peace. We must make our own democracy so just and so brotherly as to be impregnable. . . .

Would the three billions of dollars advocated for Universal Military Training bring greater security to this land than a similar three billions used to perfect our educational life, to provide proper security for old age and those who are incapacitated, arrange to bring thousands of young people from overseas to study in our universities, to learn of our democracy and to return with our democratic ideals to their own lands? We are being high-pressured into unwise ways by men who lack wisdom.—From the Bishop's Address to the General Conference of the Methodist Church, Boston, Massachusetts, May, 1948.

A Report on the District VI

Project in International Education

By IRA M. KLINE

On Tuesday afternoon, February 24, Dr. Karsten Heli, Rector of Hegdehaugen Gymnasium of Oslo, Norway, arrived in New York by Norwegian-American Line steamer, Stavangerfjord.

The arrival of Dr. Heli represented the consummation of an unique enterprise in international educational cooperation for Phi Delta Kappa and from District Six.

At the District Conference at Teachers College, Columbia University, November 30, 1946, organized and conducted by Douglas Grafflin, Robert Stanforth, Secretary of the Commission for International Educational Reconstruction, was the speaker at one of the sessions. One of the ways Brother Stanforth suggested in which Phi Delta Kappa could help in education internationally was, "Due to the need of trained personnel in some of the foreign countries, let each district of Phi Delta Kappa underwrite the expense of an educator from abroad to spend time in the United States for the purpose of observing American educational institutions and practices."

During the closing session of this district conference Brother Grafflin directed the discussion of a visiting educator project. The conference authorized the Coordinators and the District Representative to study the problem and to submit a plan of action to be submitted to the chapters of the district for approval.

The Coordinators and the District Representative following a thorough study of the problem recommended as considered in the District Conference that each chapter in the district be asked to contribute fifty (50c) cents for each active member in its chapter. The response to this appeal was most generous and on November 28, 1947, a deposit of $1,292.50 was in the Chappaqua National Bank. Subsequently one chapter made an additional contribution of ten ($10) dollars and one chapter which had not previously contributed made a direct gift to Dr. Heli of twenty-five ($25) dollars for the purchase of a gift for his school.

This project which brought Dr. Heli to this country, maintained him for two months, provided return passage and had a tidy sum which represented the balance in the bank account for the purchase of certain articles not obtainable in Norway, is a superb manifestation of what can be accomplished cooperatively within the fraternity.

At our request Dr. Heli before his arrival in this country listed twenty-one items representing phases of his interest in educational institutions and practices in America. This list appeared in the March issue of THE PHI DELTA KAPPAN.

In the preparation of Dr. Heli's itinerary, provision was made for a visit to every chapter area of District Six. The itinerary was developed at Atlantic City during the A. A. S. A. convention by Brother Grafflin, the Coordinators and other Phi Delta Kappa members who found it convenient to attend the meeting.

This project had the enthusiastic endorsement of the national officers. By a coincidence President Hull was in New York on the day of Dr. Heli's arrival. They met at luncheon at New York University.

It is obvious that the amount of money available would not have been adequate to meet all expenses for the two months of Dr. Heli's visit had not members of the fraternity in every center not opened their homes to Dr. Heli or provided comfortable quarters at local hotels at the local chapter's expense. Members of the families in which he was entertained found him a charming guest. At every center the host chapter consulted Dr. Heli's interests as far as possible.

Dr. Heli sailed for Oslo on the Stavangerfjord on April 24, exactly two months from the day of his arrival. His report to his countrymen on his visit to this country will certainly confirm their confidence in our friendship and understanding of the problems faced by the devastated areas of Europe.

Phi Delta Kappa and Foreign Students

By IVAN PUTNAM, JR.

We have heard a great deal about international relations and international understanding, but most of us do little more than talk about the problems involved. Last year Alpha Gamma Chapter's Committee on International Educational Cooperation, under the chairmanship of Morgan Jones, decided to do something about the matter. With the wholehearted support of the chapter, the committee conducted negotiations with the Institute of International Education on sponsoring a foreign student interested in coming to America for advanced study in the field of Education.

The student finally selected is Mr. Eilif Steen Strand of Oslo, Norway, a graduate of a Norwegian teachers college, with advanced study at the University of Oslo to his credit. He has had three years of teaching experience in elementary schools in his native country, and during the war served as an officer in the Norwegian army and an active worker in the underground. He was able to complete the requirements for the master's degree at the State College of Washington, and did a particularly good piece of work on his thesis, a comparative study of Norwegian and American educational systems. We were pleased to initiate him into Phi Delta Kappa on May 18, 1948.

Alpha Gamma Chapter considers it a privilege to have been able to bring an outstanding student to this country for advanced work, and we would like to recommend that other Phi Delta Kappa chapters undertake sponsorship of a student of Education from abroad. We believe it is one of the most worthwhile projects that any chapter could inaugurate. However, we have learned that there is more to making arrangements for a foreign student than one might expect, and therefore we would like to offer the benefit of our experience to others who may consider trying the idea. We believe the following ten points to be of prime importance in planning and carrying such a project through successfully.

1. *Make your plans early.* In order to bring a student to the campus for the fall term, you should begin not later than March 1 to make the arrangements. We did not begin until the middle of June,

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which proved to be undesirable for two reasons. Because of the short notice and the difficulties of transportation, our friend from Norway had to be two weeks late in coming. Although he was able to make up the work he had missed, it would have been much more satisfactory for all concerned to have had him here even before the beginning of the term. Furthermore, most of the chapter members, including the officers, were away from the campus when the arrangements were made, and there was not sufficient time between their return and his arrival to plan adequately for the chapter's part in his program.

2. *Conduct your negotiations through the Institute of International Education.* This organization, located at 2 West 45th Street, New York 19, New York, has world-wide contacts and can provide almost any sort of applicant that you may specify. They have had many years of experience in selecting and handling exchange students and can manage the matter much more satisfactorily than you can usually do. In selecting a candidate it is probably most satisfactory to choose a senior or graduate student who will be able to earn a degree in the length of time he will be in this country.

3. *Ascertain the full extent of the financial help that you can guarantee and specify it exactly in your offer to the prospective foreign student.* We were able to secure a Foreign Exchange Scholarship, covering tuition and fees, and a room scholarship for our scholar, and we figured that he could work part-time to pay for his board. However, our statements evidently were not very clear, and we were a little surprised when the Institute wrote to him that "Phi Delta Kappa guarantees free board and room in return for services rendered." The word "free" has connotations that we did not intend, and "in return for services rendered" could mean almost anything. After Mr. Strand arrived

we appropriated $200 for his use, but his path would have been smoother, and he would have felt more secure if we had been more definite in our original commitments. It is well to remember also that with the current shortage of dollars in most of the nations of the world, the field of possible candidates from whom you can select will increase in direct proportion to the size of the scholarship that you can offer.

4. *If you plan to have your student work for pay, check the job opportunities carefully and clear the matter with the nearest office of the U. S. Immigration and Naturalization Service.* Naturally your candidate must be qualified for any work which you arrange, which makes it a little difficult to select a job for him in advance. An equally important consideration is the appropriateness of the work. The only thing we were sure of being able to arrange for our student was employment as a dishwasher or bus boy in a college dining hall. However, when he arrived it was immediately apparent that such work was not economic for him, a mature and experienced man. Furthermore, he came to this country to learn all he could about American education, and certainly that kind of work would contribute little toward that objective. Finally, after several weeks of investigation of part-time work in the School of Education, the Office of Foreign Students, the Registrar's Office, the Bureau of Visual Teaching, the History and Geography Departments of the local schools, etc., we were able to place him as an assistant in the College Reading Clinic, a position for which he was qualified, and which was helpful to him.

It should also be kept in mind that under present regulations no alien on a Section 4 (e) student visa can be permitted to accept any sort of employment without permission of the district office of the U. S. Immigration and Naturalization Service, and a student in this country on a Section 3 (2) visitor's visa cannot accept employment at all. Therefore, it is wise to check any advance offers of part-time work with the Immigration Office before commitments are made.

5. *Insist that college officials and your chapter committee be notified in advance of the exact time of the foreign student's arrival on the campus.* We had asked that we be notified in order that we might meet him at the train, but no message reached us, and our student arrived at midnight on a Sunday night with no reception committee on hand and no information as to whom to call or where to go. He finally began hunting for the "Phi Delta Kappa house," and eventually was taken in for the night by a friendly fraternity group that does have a house.

6. *Arrange for a definite housing assignment and be sure the visiting scholar knows where it is before he arrives.* Then if he should miss his welcoming committee for any reason, he should still be able to reach a place where he will be taken care of adequately. He will also know that he is expected and will not feel that his arrival is inconveniencing anyone.

7. *Be sure that all college officials who could possibly be concerned know all about the arrangements that have been made for your foreign scholar.* These officials would include the adviser to foreign students, the faculty committee on foreign students, housing officials, the registrar, the bursar, personnel officers, all of the staff of the education department, and of course officers and members of your chapter. During the summer when our arrangements were made many of the officials were away from the campus and such wide distribution of the information was not possible. By an unfortunate coincidence, almost all of those who did know about the plans happened to be out of town when our student arrived, and he was thereby delayed somewhat in getting settled.

8. *Settle the academic status of your foreign student before he comes if at all possible, and in any event immediately after his arrival.* Because of difficulties with evaluation of his credentials, Strand, in common with several other foreign students, had an unnecessarily long and bitter battle to establish his graduate standing. There is very little that a Phi Delta Kappa chapter can do in such cases, but certainly it can urge that the institution handle such matters with speed and understanding for all foreign students.

9. *Make a small committee responsible for all of the chapter's arrangements for the foreign scholar throughout the year.* The student will appreciate knowing that he can discuss his problems freely with one or two or three people who are interested and are eager to help him. A small committee can frequently handle problems without the bother and possible embarrassment of bringing them up before the entire chapter. The committee

may also represent the sponsored student in taking care of details that would be troublesome for him to handle by himself.

10. *Do everything possible to enrich the educational experience of the student while he is with you.* We arranged for our scholar to visit schools in various parts of the state both alone and in the company of staff members who were on official business for the college. Attendance at educational meetings of various kinds was also made possible for him. He found these experiences valuable, and those whom he visited learned much from him.

It is evident from several of these points, and we are quite frank in admitting it, that our first experience in sponsoring a foreign student was not as smoothly handled as we would have wished. However, we know that all concerned profited, and we believe it is one of the most valuable and interesting projects that Alpha Gamma Chapter has ever undertaken. We hope that many other chapters will take this means to promote international educational cooperation.

But whether or not your chapter can undertake bringing a foreign student to the campus, you can certainly "adopt" foreign students who are there. Even if they are not specializing in the field of Education, most foreign students are interested in the American educational system. Many of them are happy to accept invitations to Education Classes, to Phi Delta Kappa meetings, or to members' homes to discuss educational practices in their countries and ours. Many students from abroad will also be eager to visit elementary and high schools to see our methods in action. Phi Delta Kappa can be instrumental in arranging such visits.

We have found that these "unofficial ambassadors" from abroad not only learn from us but also have much to teach us in return. They often have ideas and constructive criticisms that are well worth a little pondering on the part of our educators. They also have much of interest to tell our students, and often they are willing to talk before school assemblies or geography, civics, or history classes. One opportunity to see, hear, and talk with a neighbor from another part of the world can often do more than a dozen ordinary assignments or lectures by the teacher to get the youngsters to thinking about and acting to improve international goodwill, race relations, and related problems.

As Phi Delta Kappans, promotion of such projects should be in the front rank of our activities.

Our Social Goals

A ground-swell of interest in philosophy "as a clarification of ends and means," is predicted by John B. Whiteman, chairman of the department of education in Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, in the Alpha Rho *Bulletin.* " . . . the great books do not provide a way out for more than the upper 15 per cent of the intellectually gifted; and even with that group the quest for certainty is likely to become mere dilettantism. . . . We have great need for opportunities to think through the motivations for our actions, the processes that we call education, and the social goals that we as educators are striving to achieve."

The government bought 3,900 motion-picture films and thousands of slide films for the training and entertainment of the armed forces. Over 21,000 sound projectors were bought for the Army; 15,000 for the Navy.

Today when humanity is threatened with complete destruction by the liberation of atomic forces, people begin to realize that the only efficient protection lies in a greater and higher moral development. For the first time in the history of humanity, man is afraid of what he has done with his intelligence and wonders whether he has chosen the right path."—Pierre Lecomte du Nuoy, in *Human Destiny.*

The best single indicator of the condition of the school is the record of average daily attendance, George L. McCoy of Los Angeles is reported as saying in the Alpha Pi Newsletter. "Good attendance, good school; poor attendance, poor school."

Congress on returning to session has before it many major issues, including federal aid for education, compulsory military training in peacetime, housing, control of atomic energy, the Marshall plan and relationships with other countries, and the national science research foundation.

Present veterans must begin their education and training before July 25, 1951, and must conclude it before July 25, 1956.

Keeping Abreast in Education

Research

Originally set up under the supervision of the University of London, The National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales now operates as an independent body. National professional organizations, universities and colleges, and local education authorities contributed dues of over £8,000 and from the Ministry of Education it had a grant of £3,500 pounds.

The Foundation expects to publish a complete list of all the researches in education presented for higher degrees in education and psychology at British Universities. It is expected that this will be ready in the autumn of 1948.

Researches currently underway under auspices of the Foundation include:

1. The methods of allocation of children at the age of 11 plus to appropriate secondary school curricula.

2. Tests of an experimental rural school in Wiltshire and in suitable control schools located in the same county.

3. A study of rewards and punishments, undertaken at the request of the Ministry of Education after a debate in the House of Commons. On this two full time staff members are at work under the direction of an advisory committee representative of the universities training departments for teachers, of administrators, of teachers in all types of schools, of the Ministry of Education and the Home office.

4. Research into the use of visual aids in education.

5. Research in cumulative records of school pupils.

6. Research into problems distinctive of educational life in Wales and bilingual records for pupils in Wales. This includes preparation and standardization of diagnostic tests.

7. The Stead Memorial Research into the content and method of the modern secondary school curriculum, now ready for publication.

8. The analysis of intelligence, at present in the stage of a pilot test.

9. The research into interview examinations, a problem related to the research into the transference of school children in the secondary school curricula at the age of 11 plus.

10. An inquiry into the respective merits of Greek and Latin in a five-year school course.

11. Research into the education of children suffering from spastic paralysis and allied conditions. The range of potential educability among cerebral palsied children indicates the need for closer investigation before special schools are planned.

12. An investigation into suitable intelligence tests for blind children.

13. Non-verbal tests of mental ability.

In addition there are researches being carried on by individual research workers under supervision of the foundation.

The National Foundation for Education Research In England and Wales may be addressed at 79 Wimpole Street, London, W. I., England.

Foreign Students

A full time student counselor for foreign students when the institution has more than 200 foreign students, was the proposal of Clarence Linton to the American College Personnel Association. When an institution has up to 25 foreign students on the basis of practice, one-tenth of the full time of the counselor should be scheduled.

Twenty thousand students from overseas are attending more than 900 colleges and universities, he said. They come from 110 different countries. There are about three men for each woman. Eighty-five to 90 per cent come on family funds, ten or fifteen per cent hold government scholarships from private agencies. Not over one-tenth are receiving financial aid from our colleges and universities. Many are having a difficult time financially. Many come on faith. Thus, a Hindu student arrived from Bombay by air after an elapsed time of 48 hours in clothing appropriate for a semi-tropical climate. At the time of his arrival New York was experiencing semi-Arctic climate. He had no living accommodations, little money, and was late for registration.

Three Chapters Installed

The Directory of Phi Delta Kappa in this issue lists three new chapters. Beta Nu Campus Chapter was installed at the University of Mississippi at Oxford on October 20th. Beta Alpha Field Chapter was installed at Mobile, Alabama, on October 18th, and Beta Beta Field Chapter was installed at Springfield, Missouri, on November 20th.

The Future of Television in Education

By PHILIP LEWIS

HARRY R. LUBKE, Director of Don Lee Television, as a guest speaker at a recent Phi Delta Kappa meeting made the following significant statement: "Television is destined to become a major factor in education. We need the help of educators. The doors of television are now open to you—come in."

Such an invitation is both an opportunity and a challenge. Some educators have decided to "come in" and as a result promising developments may be found in the experiments being conducted at American, California, Creighton, Northwestern, Syracuse, and other universities, as well as in the Chicago, Detroit, New York, Los Angeles, and other school systems within receiving distance of television stations.

We of the teaching profession know far too little at present to guide and efficiently utilize this new tool in our daily work. Video faces the same danger that has reduced radio's educational efficiency: that the best thinking and the greatest financial assistance will be aimed at developing the medium for its entertainment possibilities with almost total disregard of its intellectual and cultural values. We must be sure that education is in a position to obtain the full benefits that TV is capable of giving.

Educators are frequently accused of being slow to adopt new methods. In many instances they should be, until they are reasonably certain that the innovation is practicable and beneficial. In the instance of television it is necessary that we be as well informed on the subject as is possible; have a general understanding of the place TV occupies in the broad field of communication, and begin to offer training, not in the skills, but in the interpretation of the present as well as future potentialities, and its sociological as well as commercial implications. Any new subject matter in this area should be made a part of existing courses and sequences in radio and related fields, in my opinion. When the research and experienced teaching personnel permits, specialized courses may be offered; these to be followed by instruction in skills. This may seem to be the long way around, but it must be remembered that television in the curriculum is subject to acceptance by the faculties. Experience proves that this is a long and slow process.

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Television has much to offer education. It is so important that we should not imperil its development with the words of untrained and ill-equipped disciples. Some of the things that educators may do are:

1. Plan programs in cooperation with the local TV producer. The present is an excellent time for this type of experimentation since sufficient sponsors have not yet taken up all of the air time available, especially during the school hours. Then too, this constitutes "public service" and all stations try to devote some of their transmissions to this end.

2. Arrange with the local producer for "on the job" training of small groups of key personnel who will become better qualified to "carry the word." It is almost impractical at this time to attempt to set up studio equipment for training purposes only. The cost involved is too high and live situations give better results.

3. Develop techniques for the presentation of educational programs which avoid amateurishness. For example, settings in the classroom have been found to arouse resentment in the viewer.

4. Conduct experiments to learn in which areas television may make the best contributions. Perhaps a change in specific methodology for certain subjects may be necessary.

5. Set up situations and controls to determine the retentivity of material taught via TV, as compared to other means and to discover the proper areas of utilization of the new medium.

6. Determine the extent and effects of such causative factors as eye fatigue, viewing angles with direct-view vs. projection receivers, contrast

and brilliancy and attention spans of the various age groups.

7. Advocate and support the formation of a national commission on the educational aspects of television, the objectives of this group to be aimed at setting up standards, specifications and goals for school use, and to distribute information to the profession concerning the sociological, psychological, technical, managerial and artistic characteristics of video.

8. Evidence sufficient interest and activity in the educational future of tele to influence the Federal Communications Commission to allot exclusive school channels. As the situation is now, all are on an equal footing to apply for permission to build stations and obtain licenses. Commercial interests are in the advantageous position of being able to advance the necessary cash now and, therefore, practically all permits to date have been issued to non-educational interests.

9. Assemble all the material written on educational TV and publish it, as well as a periodic index to facilitate research and enlightenment.

Utilization of television as an educational tool is not confined to the transmissions of commercial stations. Instead, this is but one of its potentialities. It has been predicted that ultimately all large school systems will have video stations, just as many of them now operate their own FM transmitters. Such an eventuality would permit the launching of really effective programs of instruction, in-service training, public relations work, promotion of scholastic athletics and many other desirable projects not within the scope of radio alone.

Preliminary reports reveal that "closed circuit" television may someday become a real and integral part of our teaching tools and techniques. Such installations are tied together by means of coaxial cables and the programs do not go out "on the air." Thus, a license is not needed and the setup becomes completely "personal." With an arrangement of this kind programs originating in the school auditorium, laboratory, gymnasium or other strategic location can be distributed to any or all rooms of the building; much like the operation of an intercommunication system.

At least a half-dozen such arrangements are now in operation or in the planning stage in a number of large universities. The development of the image orthicon tube for camera pickup made possible this procedure since such a camera is sensitive to scenes under conditions of normal illumination.

Industrial estimates predict that this new field of endeavor, will in the space of from five to ten years, employ upwards of ten million workers in all of its branches. Many of the openings will require persons with a high degree of training and ability. With but few exceptions there are virtually no established organizations or programs to train such personnel. This may well become one of the major tasks of education. However, schools and other agencies have already taken up the task of investigating the possibilities of TV and the notations that follow will describe some of the more important findings:

1. The video medium has been used to do mass testing and it is believed it will eventually be a boon to the administration of standardized tests.

2. The Navy Research Center at Sands Point, Long Island, recently announced plans to train some of the new recruits by means of TV. As early as 1942, air-raid wardens in New York were schooled in this manner.

3. Doctors, internes and nurses are receiving instruction in surgical procedures from viewing screens located in classrooms connected by coaxial cable to the operating room.

4. Television can be effectively utilized to magnify objects. A camera "eye" directed into a microscope can result in an image on the screen which is limited in size only by the physical dimensions of the screen itself. The manipulation of electronic controls can enlarge, reduce and focus the image seen. This may reduce the need for individual microscopes in many instances.

5. Effective topographical work for map-making was accomplished by using airborne tele cameras to pick up images and transmit them back to the home station for filming. This same device was employed during the war for reconnaissance and fire direction.

6. Astronomical study can be facilitated by equipping telescopes located on remote mountain peaks with television pick-up to transmit images to classrooms many miles away.

7. Television kits (build-it-yourself) now come complete with directions and experiment sheets to facilitate instruction in the more technical aspects

of theory, assembly and testing. This also opens the door to a program of school-built equipment to reduce the amount of the investment and to train personnel at the same time.

8. Some public high school systems have already set up workshops to train both teachers and students in TV procedures. The industry has been snapping up these student graduates almost as soon as they complete their training.

9. Initial results from tests given indicate that retentivity is high in cases of instruction given over television.

10. Still pictures and motion pictures can be recorded from monitor scopes (or from the viewing screen of a regular receiver) to make permanent the images of noteworthy events. In most cases it is necessary to receive permission to rescreen such recordings for remunerative purposes, but think of the ease with which a picture library may be built and kept up-to-date in this manner.

11. The idea of the "community school" has been given added impetus in the instances where the school auditorium has been thrown open to the public on occasions when programs of merit and special interest are being televised.

12. Present-day cost levels will prevent most schools from spending the large sums necessary for Intra-Tel equipment, but receivers are now within the reach of all educational institutions able to afford motion picture projectors. Some manufacturers have been known to contribute equipment to schools for purposes of experimentation. It is wise, however, to plan for the future and decide on equipment that is flexible, that may be added to, and in general answer school purposes.[1]

13. The suggestion has been advanced that a school system could set up its own station with a relatively modest investment by starting with a mobile transmitter (built into a truck and completely self-contained.) When this unit is in its garage, it may be easily "cabled" to adjoining rooms fitted up as studios. On other occasions the "station" is able to make its way to remote points of pickup for complete coverage. These mobile packages are now being offered for sale by a few of the large manufacturers.

14. Television is certainly not expected to replace the teacher, but it will prove to be a helpful assistant. This will be especially true in the fields of demonstration and experimentation; where much equipment or hard-to-get materials are used.

15. It is possible that TV is essentially a newsphoto and educational medium. However, it is an entity all its own. It will not supplant radio as we know it today. The best guess is that a merger will take place. AM (amplitude modulation) stations will give way to FM (frequency modulation) stations. The FM will furnish the sound for television during the hours the video audience can take time off to watch the screen. At other hours FM will carry on by itself as an audio medium.

16. Children are found to be most effective on video when they are just being themselves.

17. Humans are natural imitators and the observation of a unique and novel method of doing something is a challenge to most of us.

18. Television has a mobility not attained by the stage and the movies and the special effects possible are far out of the realm of former two.

19. Much of the research completed to perfect the movies has been used as standards in television but, TV is not to be considered another form of the movies.

It is also important to study the developments of the industry with a view toward modifying and adapting their findings to school purposes. In this connection a recital of some of the innovations would be of value:

1. The United Nations Headquarters in New York have been planned to include television to link their principal offices so that officials may view screens to see as well as hear what is going on in the major council chambers.

2. Several large department stores in some of our principal cities tested (very successfully) a shopping service, whereby customers are seated comfortably before a screen which reveals the happenings in each of the departments as the television camera makes the rounds.

3. Specially built equipment permits remote observation of dangerous, inaccessible and critical processes or experiments (inside oil-wells, steel mill processes, atomic explosions, etc.). This device delivers a continuous image of a specific process to a screen located in an observation room in a desirable place. Actually, a single person can supervise many different situations by means of a multiple screen installation.

4. During World War II, two general types

[1] *Television Goes to School,* Educational Screen, November, 1948.

of airborne television were developed. "Block" equipment was designed for unattended operation. "Ring" apparatus requires the attention of an operator. Both systems have potentialities which are far from realization at this time. Imagine a helicoptor fitted with either type of TV hovering near the scene of a celebration, disaster, important happening, process or operation, and "reporting" to the viewing audience as the event occurs. Robot or radio-controlled craft can be so fitted to assist in exploring the upper regions or the "bottomless" holes in the sea.

5. Ultrafax, a new system of communication which combines television and facsimile, may be used for transmitting printed matter, maps, messages, letters, drawings and any other form of visual material. The contents of a 500 page book can be sent coast-to-coast in one-half minute. The Sunday metropolitan paper including the comics, can be transmitted over the same route in just one minute! A single television circuit can carry the equivalent of 40 tons of airmail cross-country in a day. It is quite possible that someday Ultrafax will replace the mails as we know it, since it's just a further development of V-mail, but the images on the microfilm are transmitted and received by television and re-recorded on other microfilm.

6. Underwater TV experiments conducted by the Navy opens a new field in deep water investigation and another in novel programs. Fishermen may use this device to locate schools of fish and oyster beds. Explorers will be enabled to scan the ocean bottom, and even submarines may be fitted with television "eyes."

7. Pleasure boats, commercial aircraft and taxicabs have been equipped with the new medium as a service for their passengers.

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8. It has been proposed that tourist agencies in vacation spots show their prospects the highlights of a proposed junket by means of images sent from an airplane flying over the area. This same method can be used for police traffic control of arterial highways in congested areas.

Many of the speculative experiments, not yet out of the laboratory, may warrant inclusion in this review for the stimulus they may provide. It must be remembered, however, that some of the projects may take months and even years before becoming realities, and others may be dropped for lack of practicability or feasibility:

1. International television is now considered as being entirely possible with no insurmountable technical difficulties to be encountered.

2. Electronic color television has been demonstrated to the F. C. C. and the predictions are that it will be in commercial usage within the next five to ten years.

3. Stereoscopic (three dimensional) picture transmission has been demonstrated. At this stage it is cumbersome and unwieldy but gives promise to add a third dimension to TV in the future.

4. Infra-red image tubes have been tested successfully. This means that a special camera can be used to pick up action taking place without benefit of visible light.

5. It may be three to four years before the nation as a whole is really covered by networks of cables and relay stations, but it is a good guess that before the year is out there is a strong possibility of at least one network commencing operation to tie the East and West coasts together.

6. In England application has been made for permission to "distribute" movies to a chain of theaters via television. This revolutionary proposal may well change the character of the movie industry in time to come.

The material condensed in this article can be expanded a thousand-fold and still not do justice to the topic. However, this summary may assist the educator (who cannot possibly read all the literature on all subjects) keep abreast of television and plan for the future. A canvass of one high school in a large city revealed that approximately one out of every sixteen students lives in a home having a television receiver—and this is only the beginning.

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